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This handbook is designed as a guide for persons engaged in planning, improving or managing programs and operations of schools and institutes of administration which offer academic degree and nondegree programs, research, and advisory services. It focuses on public, development, municipal and business administration. Although the handbook is intended primarily for schools and institutes in underdeveloped countries, it contains much that is applicable to educational endeavors in industrialized nations. Specific guidance is offered for centers that: (1) serve some or all levels of government and public and private enterprise; (2) have wide substantive scope including important policy and administrative elements; (3) emphasize economic and social development; and (4) are interdisciplinary in nature. The proposed audience for this handbook prepared in collaboration with the institutional members of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences includes: staffs and governing officials of such centers, government personnel responsible for manpower and education planning, technical organizations and advisors assisting such centers, and academic administrators and instructors concerned with the role of universities in meeting public service and national development needs. (JS)

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Graduate School of Public and International Affairs
University of Pittsburgh

Organizing Schools and Institutes of Administration

A HANDBOOK

on planning, improving, and managing centers of education, research and advisory services in public, development, business, and local government administration.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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Preface

Over 200 schools and institutes of public and development administration in some 92 countries are now playing a crucial role in the process of modernization and nation building. Many of these institutions now possess more than a decade of experience.

To distill the experience gained in the establishment and successful operation of such schools and institutes, the Agency for International Development asked the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs of the University of Pittsburgh to prepare this handbook. The work benefitted greatly from the personal attention and effort of Dean Donald C. Stone, whose contribution to international cooperation in this field needs no testimonial. As indicated in the Foreword, the handbook incorporates substantial contributions and suggestions by distinguished experts from all over the world. The Agency particularly appreciates this global participation of practitioners.

This sharing of experience augurs well for the continuing growth and international interchange of administrative knowledge serving economic and social development. We hope this handbook will be useful not only in testing knowledge and practice, but also in promoting further interchange in the true meaning of technical cooperation. Dean Stone would appreciate receiving comments on the applicability to different situations of the various approaches described in this preliminary edition.

Jack Koteen, Chief
Development Administration Division
Office of Program and Policy Coordination
Agency for International Development
Department of State

February 1969

FOREWORD

This Handbook is designed as a guide for persons engaged in organizing or strengthening programs and operations of schools and institutes of administration which conduct academic degree and non-degree programs, research, and advisory services. It focuses on public, development, municipal, and business administration. In providing a comprehensive outline of the issues and measures entailed in planning and managing such centers, the Handbook offers specific guidance regarding each common facet of such institutions.

Schools and institutes carry a wide variety of lables, but for the purpose of the Handbook, are referred to as "centers." The terms "school", "institute", "academy", "staff college", and "center" are most common. Substantive designations include "public administration", "public affairs", "public service", "development administration", "government", "business administration", "local government", "staff development", "management", "administration", and other terms. The Handbook features centers (1) that serve some or all organs of government, such as national, regional, and local, and public and private enterprise; (2) that have wide substantive scope including important policy and administrative elements; (3) that emphasize economic and social development; and (4) that are interdisciplinary in character and hence free from domination by a single discipline.

At a meeting in Copenhagen in July 1967, a consultative group of directors of centers delineated the Handbook's content and format. It was agreed that the proposed audience for the Handbook should include:

> Staffs of schools and institutes, especially those with limited background in the work of such centers.
>
> Members of governing boards or advisory committees who need better understanding of the role and requirements of centers.

Government officials responsible for manpower and education planning, staff development, and improvement of services.

Members of civil service, personnel, or establishment agencies involved in recruitment and training.

Technical cooperation organizations and advisors assisting such schools and institutes.

Academic administrators and instructors concerned with the role of universities in meeting public service and national development needs.

A special purpose of the Handbook is to help schools and institutes in the less developed countries. However, the need for such educational centers is universal, and much of the Handbook's content is applicable also to educational endeavors in industrialized countries. Some countries with high living standards are lagging behind newer nations in creating dynamic educational centers of administration and public affairs.

The organization and programs of schools and institutes in various countries differ widely, being adapted to the needs and conditions of the countries. Thus, the suggestions in the Handbook must be interpreted flexibly; they are not an effort to standardize practice. The individuality of each situation-of each culture-must be reflected in the policies, program, and methods of the center. However, all countries require more comprehensive, better staffed, and more adequately supported centers than now exist.

Preparation of the Handbook has been made possible by an allocation of funds from the United States Agency for International Development to the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs of the University of Pittsburgh. It has been conducted as a collaborative project with the Group of Schools and Institutes of Public Administration of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS).

Selected heads of member institutions of the IIAS Group were invited to prepare background materials on various chapters, and, in some cases, to prepare a draft chapter. A questionnaire to secure factual data on practices and views on many of the subjects covered in the Handbook was sent to persons representing a broad sample of centers, producing very useful results.

A consultative group of heads of centers in various parts of the world advised on the Handbook's scope and reviewed tentative drafts of chapters. Meetings of this group and others at the IIAS Round Table in Copenhagen (July 1967) and the Congress in Dublin (September 1968) have been invaluable. Chapters III, VII, and XII served as work papers for three meetings at Dublin.

To elicit suggestions and criticisms, copies of the manuscript were sent for review to the deans and directors of the principal centers throughout the world, to international and bilateral technical assistance agencies, and to other authorities. Conversations were held with numerous persons about coverage and specific points. These suggestions from many sources have been reflected in the text with numerous revisions of chapters. This task was not always easy, because differences of view were found on many subjects.

Acknowledgment and appreciation are due the following persons, among others, who played a special role in preparation of the Handbook:

M.W. Abbasi, Pakistan Administrative Staff College. Member of consultative group.

Abdel Rahman Abdalla, African Centre for Training and Research in Development Administration, Tangier. Member of consultative group. Prepared first draft of Chapter VIII.

Robert Abramson, University of Pittsburgh. Reviewed Chapters III, V, and VIII.

Julio Rodriguez Aria, Institute of Latin American Integration, Buenos Aires. Reviewed drafts.

Colin A. Baker, Institute of Public Administration, University of Malawi. Member of consultative group.

Shiram Bapat, United Nations Institute for Training and Research. Participated in meeting of consultative group.

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Gerald Brown, Institute of Administration, Zaria, Nigeria. Wrote basic draft of Chapter VI.

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Wade Cooper, University of Pittsburgh. Prepared first draft of Chapter III. Served as staff assistant to the project.

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J. Kariuki, Kenya Institute of Public Administration. Member of consultative group.

J.N. Khosla, Indian Institute of Public Administration. Member consultative group.

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Anne Leemans, Institute of Social Studies at the Hague. Participated in the consultative group meeting at Dublin.

I. Mackinson, Zambia National Institute of Public Administration. Participated in consultative group meeting in Dublin.

Victory Mamphy, Institute of Public Administration, Ghana. Member of consultative group.

Albert Martin, University of Pittsburgh. Reviewed first draft of Chapter III.

Elwyn A. Mauck, University of Pittsburgh. Prepared draft materials for Chapters III, X, and XI. Served as general editor of Handbook.

Frank M. McGowan, U.S. Library of Congress. Principal author of Chapter IX.

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A. Gaylord Obern, University of Pittsburgh. Prepared first draft for Chapter II and reviewed Chapter III.

M.G. Pimputkar, Director, National Academy of Administration, Mussoorie, U.P. India. Participated in developing initial material on facilities and services of centers.

Carlos P. Ramos, Graduate School of Public Administration, University of the Philippines. Participated in consultative group meeting in Dublin.

John Sargent, Royal Institute of Public Administration, London. Reviewed Chapter VIII and advised on draft.

F. Burke Sheeran, University of Pittsburgh. Wrote first draft of Chapter V and materials for personnel and staff development for Chapter X.

Beatriz Marques de Souza Wahrlich, Escola Brasileira de Administracao Publica, Rio de Janeiro. Reviewed parts of manuscript.

C. Packard Wolle, Institute of Public Administration of New York. Reviewed draft of all chapters.

Freeman J. Wright, University of Pittsburgh. Reviewed Chapters III and VIII.

I wish to thank especially Dr. Elwyn A. Mauck, Professor of Public Administration of the University of Pittsburgh, who gave a final edit to the entire Handbook. His experience in Nigeria, Taiwan, Korea, Turkey, and Brazil proved invaluable.

Representatives of the Agency for International Development have been helpful in the design of the Handbook, as well as patient in what must have seemed an excessive period for its production.

Although many persons and groups have contributed to the content of the Handbook, none has approved or endorsed it. I wrote, rewrote, or edited all chapters, and resolved all issues of content. Since there has not been opportunity for review of several of these chapters, we propose that this edition be viewed as a provisional one, and that within a year a revised edition be prepared reflecting the many suggestions for improvement it will elicit from the above listed persons and many others. It especially needs more contributions by directors of "écoles nationales d'administration" developed in the French pattern.

In using this Handbook, it should be borne in mind that terms have different meanings in different countries, and many words do not translate readily into other languages. Government systems, university organization, and educational traditions vary greatly. Even a common term like "public administration" has different usages in different parts of the world. As will be noted, it is attributed a very broad meaning in the Handbook.

While we have endeavored to keep these different practices in mind, we inevitably use words and make assumptions which may not be suited to particular situations. We have consciously avoided espousing traditional academic practices because we feel that these call for major adjustment everywhere to fulfill the educational needs of developing and changing societies.

Despite these limitations and varying situations, we trust that schools and institutes in many lands will find in the Handbook a useful guide in solving some of their problems.

Donald C. Stone
Dean

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania USA
1 June 1969

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Chapter I. ROLES OF SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

As background for the consideration of specific problems, this first chapter describes the growth, functions, programs, and common problems of existing schools and institutes. Subsequent chapters provide guidelines for establishing new centers and for increasing the effectiveness of present centers to enhance their contribution toward an improved public service and toward the implementation of economic and social development objectives.

The word "center" is employed in this Handbook as a generic term for schools, institutes, academies, staff colleges, and other comparable organizations.

These centers are viewed as major instruments of a country in providing education, research, and advisory services to create essential administrative capabilities in national, regional, and local governments, in public enterprise, and to some extent in the private sector.

1. Growth of Centers

The past twenty years have witnessed in nearly all countries the establishment of one or more educational and research centers to develop capacity for self-government; to produce persons with administrative and professional competence to plan and administer national, regional, and local services; and to develop knowledge and assistance facilities essential to these purposes. Increasingly, they focus on problems entailed in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans, and programs for economic and social development, complementing an earlier emphasis on structure and procedures in administration.

About two hundred of these centers are deemed by the International Institute of Administrative Sciences to be of sufficient importance to encourage them to join together in collaborative endeavors of mutual help and self-improvement. They are found in nearly all countries—both agrarian and industrialized—committed to rapid development, except in some communist countries and in some countries of Western Europe.

Both the recently independent countries and the older countries embarking on major administrative reform or accelerated economic and social development have been resourceful in establishing these centers. They vary in purpose, organization, and size. It may be stated parenthetically that every country is underdeveloped and that all need one or more professional education and research centers in public administration, either affiliated with a university, attached to government, or functioning as an independent educational institution. Of the two hundred centers included in the IIAS Group, the following countries contain four or more:

Argentina
Chile
France
India
Indonesia
Israel
Japan
Nigeria
Pakistan
United Kingdom
United States
Yugoslavia

2. Major Functions

Some of these centers devote their primary efforts to academic degree programs, some to non-degree training, and some to research, publications, and advisory services. Most of the centers include education and training, research, publications, and advisory services in some combination.

The following are the most common functions:

a. Undergraduate professional education: The purpose of undergraduate programs is to prepare persons for administrative and professional careers in national, regional, and local service or in business enterprise. Programs may enroll either pre-service or in-service persons, or both. Normally, the programs lead to a bachelor's degree, but some result in the students receiving a diploma or certificate.

b. Postgraduate professional education: Postgraduate study usually has virtually the same purpose as an undergraduate program, but at a higher, more intensive professional level. It normally leads to a master's degree, but it can be extended to the doctoral level. Until a country has the needed resources for internal quality education at a postgraduate level, it temporarily may wish to send selected persons abroad for appropriate study.

c. In-service, non-degree training: The aim in this category is to provide knowledge and skills for national, regional, and local administration, and other public and enterprise needs, through short-term courses, institutes, workshops, and seminars. Such programs may enroll pre-service recruits in "vestibule" courses, but they usually serve officials already engaged in administrative and professional work. The courses may be full- or part-time. Normally, a participant's completion of a program results in the award of a certificate, diploma, or other evidence of attendance.

d. Training in related fields: Many centers provide either academic or non-degree training in the administrative aspects of one or more specialized fields, such as rural community development, public works, social welfare, public health, education administration, management of cooperatives, and public enterprise management. Some centers cover the field of business administration. These programs may be pre-service, in-service, or both. A center may provide "capstone" training in administration of some of the above areas for persons originally trained in some other technical field, but who subsequently are being advanced to higher policy and administrative responsibilities.

e. Senior seminar-conferences: These conferences involve special categories of top officials in a broadening experience focused on major issues, new aspects of administrative science, and methods of solving administrative, operating, or policy problems. Such conferences, which are a special form of non-degree training, may enroll administrators, legislators, or judicial officers at highest levels. They may be organized either as a series of sessions meeting weekly or as a full-time conference meeting for a day or more.

f. Professional and technical conferences: These conferences involve persons at lower levels for the purpose of exposing them to new ideas and practices, facilitating an exchange of experience, and fostering support for administrative and technological improvements. Such meetings may vary from an hour or more in length to several days. Sometimes such conferences are a joint enterprise with a public administration association, a national section of the IIAS, or some other group.

g. Regional training and conferences: A few centers are organized on a regional basis; that is, they endeavor to enroll officials from neighboring countries in degree, non-degree, and conference programs. To be successful in this, the center must have substantial resources and be favorably viewed by its prospective users, conditions that have been difficult for the centers to achieve.

h. Research: Most centers engage to some extent in research for public information purposes, to develop new knowledge, to provide information for operational guidance of officials, to produce teaching materials, and to develop more effective teaching methods. Research may be conducted either as an "institutional" responsibility or by staff members acting in an individual capacity.

i. Advisory services: Many centers assist government agencies in solving program and operating problems, in developing and installing administrative improvements, and in executing development programs. These services range in scope from informal consultations between a staff member and an inquiring official to major surveys or installations.

j. Publications: Centers have an obligation to disseminate knowledge and stimulate administrative improvement through the issuance of newsletters, journals, bulletins, yearbooks, handbooks, textbooks, research reports, consultancy surveys, and other publications of informational and educational value.

k. Library and reference services: Virtually all centers provide bibliographical and reference services for their staffs and students. They generally make these facilities available to public officials, and under certain conditions to other interested persons.

3. Importance of Centers

If adequately conceived, staffed, and supported, a center can make a very great contribution to the well-being and development of a nation. Centers are crucial instruments to facilitate economic and social change by instilling into key persons the competences and knowledge required in planning and administering change. They are wellsprings from which new concepts and tested methods of administration can be disseminated through training, research, publications, and advisory services.

Without these concepts and methods, the commitments of political leaders and professional administrators to promote social and economic progress and to provide better facilities and services cannot be fulfilled. The role of a center is, in fact, a reflection of the administrative progressiveness or backwardness of a government, and it clearly demonstrates the quality of government leadership.

4. Diversity of Titles

The two hundred centers are known by various names, the more prevalent being institute or school of public administration, ecole nationale d'administration (the usual title in countries following the French pattern), institute or school of development administration, institute or school of management or administrative sciences, civil service academy, administrative staff college, et cetera. In the several languages of the nations possessing centers, these titles have considerable variation, but they normally embrace some combination of the functions listed under section 2. If the centers at the state or regional level and specialized centers for local government, community development, economic development, education, public health, agriculture, public works, et cetera were included, the number of titles would increase several fold.

A number of universities in the United States and Europe, and increasingly on other continents, are establishing schools or programs focused on graduate education in public administration, public affairs, public and international affairs, or in some more specific area, such as urban affairs, economic development, or applied social sciences. Education and training in both business and public administration are sometimes embraced by the same center, notably in countries making extensive use of public enterprise institutions.

5. Size of Centers

To conduct a comprehensive program covering several of the functions and fields listed above, an instructional and research staff of twenty or more persons is required. Only about a third of the principal centers have more than twenty professional staff members. In a very small country there may not be a sufficient number of students to sustain a staff of this size. Almost all centers lack sufficient staff members to discharge the responsibilities assigned to them.

6. Common Problems

That most of the centers share a considerable number of problems in common is reflected by written replies, in discussions at meetings of the heads of centers, and by information collected through visits from fellow professionals. These problems fall into three broad categories:

a. Inadequate government liaison. A center is an instrument to prepare and upgrade personnel for public service and to engage in research and other services for government. A close partnership with government is essential for effective results. Most governments do not fulfill their role adequately in the partnership. For example:

(1) Most governments have not made useful surveys of administrative personnel requirements, nor have they made careful assessment of related educational needs—both of which are essential to provide centers with a sound basis for program planning.

(2) Top political and administrative officials often do not understand the contribution that training can make; nor do they understand the interrelationships among (a) the formulation and implementation of development programs and projects, (b) administrative improvement to develop capabilities for fulfillment of development goals, and (c) education and training to produce the requisite staffing.

(3) Poorly administered personnel systems often result in assigning the less competent employees for training and in failure to use effectively the persons who have been adequately trained.

b. Lack of administrative support. In a number of ways, governments fail to provide centers with sufficient resources to do an effective job:

(1) Centers are expected and often try to provide more services than their budgets permit. They are understaffed.

(2) Centers often are dependent on government for loan of staff; and they may be unable to have fully qualified persons assigned to them.

(3) Some centers do not have enough independence from the daily operations of government, and they become diverted into activities that interfere with their principal functions. On the other hand, many centers are too remote from the operations of government.

(4) Some senior officials have a limited appreciation of the value of research, publications, and advisory services on problems of development, program management, finance, organization, and administrative practices. Centers encounter major difficulties in supporting a satisfactory combination of institutional and individual research, appropriately related to advisory assistance to government.

(5) Although many countries have erected modern buildings for government offices and agencies, there seems to be a prevalent belief that centers can use any old quarters. Poor quarters impair their operations and create an impression that they are not important.

(6) Centers that comprise an academic division of a university generally have more difficulty in securing support from government than centers attached to government, and they have the additional problem of maintaining their integrity and enlisting resources in the labyrinth of collegial processes of university decision-making. Many professors, even in the social sciences, do not believe it feasible or appropriate to provide education in public or other kinds of administration.

(7) Centers are frequently disrupted by forces outside of their control, such as political shifts that interrupt continuity in government, economic crises which reduce budgetary resources, and civil disorders which obstruct the recruitment of students.

c. Internal problems. Centers have numerous administrative problems that impair their effectiveness:

(1) They have great difficulty in recruiting instructors possessing (a) adequate knowledge of the subject matter and (b) ability to use effective teaching methods.

(2) Several years of training are required to prepare a staff man to the minimum level of competence in teaching, research, and advisory skills; and, when he reaches this level, he may be attracted by government or a private enterprise for much higher pay.

(3) Reaching a suitable balance between degree and non-degree programs, and between social science foundation courses and professional courses is always an elusive objective.

(4) The issuance of publications of acceptable professional quality often requires more expert resources and scheduled time than the center can afford to allocate.

(5) Largely because of paucity in resources, only a few centers have found it possible to create and maintain a fully adequate library.

(6) Centers established within universities often encounter an incompatible climate if (a) the university is not oriented as a service institution, (b) if the center's programs are controlled by faculty boards, senates, or academic leaders unsympathetic with its functions, or (c) if the instructors in traditional disciplines endeavor to stifle the center to capture its resources for other purposes.

7. Strengthening of Centers

All centers need strengthening, both because they lack resources to fulfill present commitments fully and because they are unable to grasp the opportunities and fulfill the needs of government in performing the functions outlined in this chapter.

Some existing specialized centers could be strengthened by absorption of related functions or by combining specialized centers into a more broadly-based institute or school. New national centers continue to be established, in some cases to serve different regions of a country. Centers in large states and provinces are also on the increase. Most countries now possessing centers probably do not need more of them; but many do need better and more comprehensive centers.

Many centers have received technical and other assistance from the United Nations, the Ford Foundation, United States Agency for International Development, the British Ministry of Overseas Development, the French Ministry of Cooperation, UNESCO, Inter-American Development Bank, and similar bodies. Continued help from such agencies is urgent, because without such stimulus the responsible officials in many emerging nations do not fully appreciate the importance of these centers in establishing truly viable government and in sustained economic and social development.

It is probable that existing centers could have been more effectively organized and operated if there had existed more handbooks or guides. They have had to rely too heavily on trial and error, unable to benefit from the knowledge or experience of other centers. The centers' organizers have lacked material evidence to show government officials and others just what elements constitute a good center. Because of the rapid turnover in directors and staffs in many of these centers, the availability of handbooks and other guidance materials is essential for existing centers as well as new ones.

8. The IIAS Working Group of Schools and Institutes of Public Administration

The heads of centers collaborating in the preparation of this Handbook are members of the "IIAS Group of Schools and Institutes." This Group consists of nearly two hundred centers loosely associated under the aegis of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, an intergovernmental organization with headquarters in Brussels.

a. The Steering Committee of this Working Group is a formally-established body consisting of a chairman and about thirty center directors or deans, together with representatives of several international organizations concerned with public administration, economic and social development, and professional education.

b. The Group's purposes are to further the exchange of experience and materials, to provide mutual encouragement, and to conduct collaborative undertakings. The focus of this effort is on "development administration."

c. Services provided by the Group include the distribution of bibliographical information from Brussels to the libraries of the participating centers; preparation and distribution of summaries of important documents published in various countries; preparation and circulation of handbooks on specific problems faced by centers; and initiation of a series of readers for use as textbooks in several aspects of development administration. These services are partially supported through a grant from the Ford Foundation.

d. Meetings. Triannually, the heads of all centers are invited to special meetings of schools and institutes held simultaneously with the congresses of the IIAS. Annually the centers that have become participating members of the Group engage in extensive discussion of common problems at round tables and regional meetings convened by the IIAS or other cooperating bodies. The findings and proposals contained in this Handbook, and handbooks on specific subjects prepared by the IIAS, will continue to be considered at forthcoming meetings of the Group.

Chapter II. DETERMINATION OF FUNCTIONS AND PROGRAMS

Purpose. This chapter deals with the formulation of a center's total program. It emphasizes the need for determining educational programs on the basis of effective manpower planning. It outlines the steps for setting priorities, and factors to be considered in deciding what functions should be included in annual and long-term programs.

1. Governing Factors

In an existing center, current functions and scope of work largely determine what it can undertake in the immediate future. A new or reorganized center, however, may have an exceedingly wide choice.

a. Mandate. The charter, statute, or other formal prescription of a center's objectives, functions, and organization usually defines in a general way the work of the center. If the provisions are unduly restrictive or outdated, a revision may be desirable.

b. Structural dependence. The organizational position of a center has a major determining effect on program, such as its location in a ministry rather than in the chief executive's office; or its incorporation in a university rather than as an autonomous unit.

c. Paralyzing traditions. Paralyzing educational traditions and an inflexible administrative system—often imported from abroad—may impede a center's potential contribution and program effectiveness. The relative newness and stability of the civil service is an important factor. Resourceful and persistent effort may be required to overcome these obstacles.

d. Staff capability. The initiative, resourcefulness, professional competence, and acceptability in government circles of the center's staff are of major importance in determining a center's influence and ability to embark effectively on new and important undertakings.

e. Location of center. A center attached directly to government is not authorized generally to award degrees. It needs either distinctive incorporation as a degree-granting institution or affiliation with a university. If no school in a university offers or can be created to offer the bachelor's or master's degree in public administration, or in equivalent professional fields, a center independent of an established university should be authorized to engage in degree-granting programs. Often resources are insufficient to create a prestigious educational center. Thus this question of how to organize a bachelor's or master's degree program of a professional character is a key policy issue. Unless traditional administrative and decision-making practices of universities are modified to accommodate a center, location of the center as a constituent part of the university may be disastrous to its program. On the other hand, it may not be feasible under traditional arrangements to clothe a center with degree-granting authority. So important is a center offering degree programs in administration to the development of a country, that finding a solution to this dilemma becomes a matter of major national policy.

f. Insufficient scope. If, for any cause, a center is performing only part of the functions appropriate for it, its scope is too narrow. For example, if a school of public administration in a university is engaged only in academic degree programs, those programs would profit and the government would be served better if the school also undertook short-term training for government officials, especially if no other center is meeting this need. Likewise, an "ecole nationale d'administration," patterned after the French prototype, should consider providing training for mid-career officials in addition to its usual functions of recruitment and pre-entry training.

2. Long-term and Annual Plans

There is an obvious need for rigorous long-range planning of a center's objectives and programs, with frequent reassessment and adjustment in programs and projects to meet changing governmental needs and desires.

a. Formal plans. It is recommended that every center develop a formal five- or six-year program and financial plan, together with a detailed annual work program and budget. The long-term plan should be revised annually when it is extended to embrace a new final year. In the absence of such planning, a center lacks the necessary work guide and instruments essential to secure resources and other support. Such planning should be related to the country's development plans and programs.

b. Coverage of plan. A five-year plan should state the goals and objectives of the center. These goals and objectives need to be related to the country's administrative and professional personnel requirements that fall within the center's purview, and to research, consultancy, and publication needs. Such a plan delineates for each function or program element the current and proposed activity targets, policies, resource requirements, and anticipated accomplishments. It shows the relation of a center's programs, activities, and projects to the country's development plans and to national, regional, and local public service requirements. Organizational, administrative, and operating requirements are a component. Additional physical plant and equipment requirements should be specified. As described in Chapter XI, budget projections and proposed sources of support comprise a major feature of any long-term or annual program.

The combination of programs and activities to be undertaken by a center and incorporated into its plans should be resolved after thorough study and assessment regarding the merits of engaging in each of the functions listed in this Handbook. Test each decision by the following questions: What is the potential contribution of each educational, research, and service activity to the quality of public service and the country's advancement? What is the program's priority in relation to available resources? What other educational institutions are or could perform the activity equally effectively?

3. Personnel Requirements

Fundamental to the formulation of a center's educational and training program is thorough knowledge of national, regional, and local governmental personnel requirements in administrative and professional fields appropriate to the center. The requirements of public enterprises, cooperatives, and other related service fields should be included in this review, as well as the complementary needs of the private sector which compete for similarly trained persons. Effective national manpower planning is essential to effective planning of a center's programs. Programs of centers often have floundered because of lack of information on the staffing needs and plans of government agencies.

a. Manpower planning. Many countries have incorporated manpower surveys as a part of their national development planning efforts. However, most of these surveys have shed relatively little light on the requirements of government for administrative personnel. They have focused on broad technical and professional categories such as teachers, engineers, accountants, nurses, et cetera.

b. Planning for personnel needs. General information on manpower should be supplemented by analysis and projection of more specific personnel requirements for government and public enterprise, with special reference to administrative, program management, operating, and related professional staff needs. The current availability of qualified persons for each category in relation to estimated need, the production rate of newly-trained persons seeking employment, and the contribution of in-service training programs in fulfilling these needs are essential elements of such an analysis.

c. Responsibility for personnel planning. Surveys of specific personnel requirements may be the appropriate responsibility of a civil service or public service commission, an establishments office, the "fonction publique," or of a national planning agency, especially if that agency has responsibility for administrative planning related to implementing plans and programs. One advisor believes a "horseback" assessment will usually suffice and that intensive surveys are a waste of effort.

d. Role of centers in manpower planning. Any major center should have a collaborative role in assessments of administrative and professional personnel requirements. Through such participation, it can advise on the use of training to upgrade present officials on pre-service programs to meet future needs. A center is in a good position to help determine the kinds and numbers of persons needed for public service in the future.

4. Fields or Categories of Training

With the data from a personnel survey in hand, the center, in consultation with government planning and personnel agencies, can identify the substantive fields and the categories of personnel and their priority to be covered by pre-service and in-service training programs. This is not to propose that the development of either degree or non-degree training programs should be postponed in the absence of a study of long-term personnel requirements. Even a brief review of personnel deficiencies usually reveals far more educational needs than a center can meet. The point is that long-range planning of a center's program and planning of governmental administrative requirements are interacting measures in the efficient utilization of a country's resources.

The following checklist, developed from an analysis of programs currently offered by centers, shows the range of fields or categories a specific center may consider. No one center can do everything:

a. General administration — focused on the preparation of administrative generalists for central government agencies and for general administrative responsibilities in all branches of government and enterprise.

b. Development planning and programming — for positions at national and regional levels, both centrally and in departments, entailing extensive background in social and economic development and in the processes of formulating, implementing, and coordinating development plans, programs, and projects.

c. Municipal planning, development, and administration — for general administrative responsibilities in local governments, notably municipalities, and in national and regional agencies concerned with urban problems and functions.

d. Rural community development — administration of community development in rural areas and small settlements, including rural local government, and for regional and national agencies concerned with rural development.

e. Administration of cooperatives — featuring the training of staff to foster and supervise cooperative programs, including the training of managers for cooperatives.

f. International administration — to provide foreign ministries, foreign services, other ministries involved with international problems, and international agencies with a nucleus of staff grounded in administration, in methods of formulation and conduct of foreign policy and programs, and in the role and processes of international organizations.

g. Business administration — to meet the managerial requirements of private business establishments and perhaps some types of public enterprises. In small countries especially, there are many advantages to be gained from including business and public administration training in the same center.

h. Special managerial and auxiliary services, such as

- — planning, programming, and budgeting
- — finance and accounting
- — tax or revenue administration
- — personnel administration
- — procurement and supply
- — administrative improvement or organization and methods services

i. Sectoral fields — functional administrators, executive staff, program managers, and administrative specialists in

- — public works
- — public health and hospitals
- — public welfare
- — education — including universities
- — agriculture
- — transportation
- — posts and communications
- — trade, industry, and commerce
- — police

j. Priorities. The thesis of this Handbook is that the administrative aspects of government services and functions need to be covered in appropriate degree, non-degree, and research programs, and unless there is some other school or institute engaged in this in a particular field like community development, public works, or business administration, then a comprehensive center of public administration or public affairs is obligated to consider its priority. It is obvious that a center cannot engage in all of these fields. Extensive consultations within government and with all affected parties are essential to ascertain what should be undertaken first and the probable timing for embarking on programs of lower priority. Public administration is viewed as the mobilization and application of all relevant knowledge, professional and technical skills, and other resources to achieve government objectives. It is thus a most comprehensive and integrating field.

5. Other Factors in Choice

In addition to the priorities assigned to each of the fields, several other elements should be considered in adopting a program — elements such as questions of pre-entry vs. postentry, academic vs. non-degree, or full-time vs. part-time programs.

a. Pre-entry vs. postentry training. Whether a given field can be served best at a particular time by pre-entry or by postentry training depends on the specific situation. Eventually, both pre-entry and postentry programs are essential. Non-degree, pre-entry training provides a quick way to cover an absolute shortage of administrative personnel available to government possessing at least the minimum competences. After this immediate objective is accomplished, degree programs, supplemented by continuous staff development, are the normal means for producing future administrative and professional staff.

(1) Advantages of pre-entry training. Pre-entry preparation can be used in conjunction with the selection process in fulfilling future staff requirements. For example, the "l'ecole nationale d'administration" system makes recruitment for the civil service a prestigious, basic element. Pre-entry training usually can be extended over a considerable time period without hindering ongoing governmental operations. New study materials can be introduced, new skills developed, and objective analysis of governmental practices can be undertaken. All countries need a steady infusion into their administrative services of some of their most talented young people who receive the best professional education, that is, through pre-entry training.

(2) Critical element in pre-entry training. High probability that a person will obtain government employment on completion of his pre-entry degree program is a critical requisite. Unless there is reasonable opportunity for appropriate government employment for persons who have demonstrated their suitability for such appointments, the incentive to learn will be limited and the program will be discredited. Entrance requirements and the objectives of pre-entry training consequently should be interrelated. In other words, pre-entry training requires coordination with selection for government service. The failure of governments to give preference to qualified persons with professional education in public administration, and to master's level work over undergraduate, is a major deterrent to the development of administrative and managerial capabilities.

(3) Importance of postentry training. The use of in-service training to increase knowledge, develop skills, broaden horizons, change attitudes, and foster professional values is widely recognized. All government employees with administrative potential need to have ready access to training or executive development opportunities. These opportunities may range from guidance on the job provided by a competent supervisor to assignment in formal courses. The higher the level of a person's official responsibility, the more important is periodic assignment to relevant training. Therefore, postentry training opportunities should be available in each major field to enable employees to increase their competences, develop their capabilities for higher responsibilities, and to upgrade government service. Since there are always limitations in amount of time available to participants, in their ability to comprehend and absorb, and in suitable instructional and teaching materials, the character and scope of training should be designed to fit the circumstances as well as needs of each field.

(4) Vestibule training. Newly-appointed employees require orientation and initial training prior to entry on full-time service or during their initial weeks of duty. Vestibule training is especially valuable in providing a broad picture of the organization, operation, practices, and requirements of government about which all staff should be familiar, as well as identification with the service to which an employee is assigned.

Such training may be either government-wide, or each ministry, department, or enterprise may have a specialized program of its own. Both are usually desirable. Employees of regional and local governments have equal need for this kind of training.

(5) Who conducts the training. Pre-service or in-service training that focuses on methods, procedures, operations, and skills of a job-oriented character is best conducted by the agency in which the trainee is employed. Broader training of this type having government-wide application is an appropriate activity for a civil service or staff training institute administered by the government's central personnel agency. Programs which focus on preparation for high level or more difficult assignments entailing the interrelation of policy, substantive, administrative, and environmental considerations should be conducted by a full-fledged professional school, institute, academy, staff college, or other similar center. If the center is affiliated with a university or otherwise empowered to award degrees, it would be an appropriate organ for both pre-entry and postentry courses of a professional nature.

(6) Supplementary to agency training. The training programs of a center are essentially supplementary to the responsibilities of supervisors for instructing their employees and to the organized training programs conducted by the administrative agencies. The center not only provides a broader and more intensive kind of development but also can play a very important role in assisting on syllabus development, training methods, and preparation of instructional materials.

b. Academic vs. non-degree training. The following are some of the possibilities and limitations of bachelor's, master's and non-degree programs to be considered:

(1) Bachelor's degree programs. In most countries, one or more centers related to a university or clothed with degree-granting authority are needed to offer professional education in public administration and allied fields. Countries of five- to ten-million population require at least one center with a broad degree program at the undergraduate level, offering perhaps three or four specializations, such as national

administration, local government, international affairs, and business management. In larger and more prosperous countries, one or more centers may cover additional departments or fields listed in Section 4 above and also engage in master's work.

(2) Master's degree programs. Three conditions are desirable for a center to undertake postgraduate education in public and allied fields:

— There must be an adequate supply of graduates holding bachelor's degrees from which to select graduate students

— The government should give some employment preference and special opportunity to persons completing successfully master's or other postgraduate work

— The center should have a faculty with a sufficient proportion of persons holding suitable doctoral and master's degrees to provide the needed scope and quality of instruction. Since few persons anywhere have earned doctoral degrees in fields covered by centers, the primary consideration must be on knowledge and competence, rather than on academic achievement.

Not many nations currently fulfill these requisites very well. Pending their achievement, a center's academic program may best remain at the bachelor's or even diploma level, with reliance for graduate level work on other countries having suitable graduate level centers.

(3) Long-range goal. The ultimate objective for the preparation of most administrative talent is a system of broad education in the arts, humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences at the bachelor's level, followed by the enrollment of graduates from these areas in a postgraduate professional administration program, either on pre- or postentry basis. It is desirable also that the postgraduate programs also draw graduates in law, agriculture, engineering, medicine, and other specialized fields so that administrators are recruited from diverse backgrounds. Enrollment of graduates from many academic disciplines and professions enriches a postgraduate program,

especially if students have had pertinent administrative experience or are currently employed in government.

(4) Non-degree programs. Non-degree training ranging from a brief period to a year or two is essential, irrespective of how well developed the bachelor's or master's programs of the nation's educational institutions may be.

- Non-degree programs are adaptable to meet highly specialized needs of government
- They usually require the participants to be absent from their posts for relatively short periods, or not at all, which simplifies the recruitment problem
- Although only a few topics can be covered because of time limits, the impact of a short course can be very great, if resourceful teaching methods and materials are used by instructors capable of employing a problem-solving approach for policy, program, and operational situations
- Short courses can be utilized for both pre-entry and postentry training in providing an intensive professional foundation in public administration or in one of its specialized areas for graduates in the arts and sciences, law, engineering, agriculture, etc.
- Courses can be conducted in regional capitals and cities as well as at the headquarters of the center

(5) Correspondence courses. Several centers have found that correspondence training meets a significant need. Supplementing home study with it, fulfillment of assignments, special lectures and discussions may be held, including a final examination. A certificate is usually awarded.

c. Full-time vs. part-time students. Full-time study in both degree and short-term programs normally provides the most effective system of education, but provision for part-time study opportunities is often desirable, especially in postentry training.

(1) Advantages of full-time study. The full-time student can give undivided attention to his studies. He can devote a sufficiently long period of time to this effort to enable him to gain an adequate mastery of both knowledge and skills in administration. Full-time study affords greater opportunity for interaction between instructors and students, greater access to library materials and other needed resources, and more time for engaging in sustained study and working on problem-solving assignments.

(2) Advantages of part-time study. In some countries, many government officials would be unable to undertake further education if part-time opportunities were not available. Inasmuch as part-time students in degree programs may study only one or two subjects at a time, they can remain in their positions and fulfill their normal duties without undue hardship. Furthermore, courses may be designed to relate substantive knowledge and analytical processes to the operating problems of the official's current position.

(3) Designing the programs. A center should design and conduct its academic and its non-degree programs to fit the needs of full-time or part-time students in a pattern that best serves the purposes of government and effective education.

6. Adoption of the Educational Program

a. Deciding what to undertake. In addition to questions of priority of fields, character of activities, and clientele to be served, several other factors should be considered in decisions about programs to be included in a center's annual and long-range plans.

b. Support by government. The needs and wishes of government officials and their readiness to give full support to specific programs are major determinants. These elements are not always easily meshed satisfactorily because of the lack of a manpower and training plan, the ignorance of officials about what training can accomplish, the turnover in officials resulting in previous arrangements being abrogated, and the unwillingness of government agencies to release employees. Continuous consultation with government representatives, ranging from the chief of state to section heads, is necessary to develop understanding and support for both short-term and long-term programs. A center must be assured that well-qualified participants will be assigned and that pre-service graduates will be considered for employment.

c. Capabilities. Before a center makes a final commitment to a program it should assure itself of

- Its capacity to adopt, organize, and administer the programs, including enough lead time for planning and development
- The availability of qualified instructors, or of the resources required to train instructors capable of conducting the programs
- The availability of suitable teaching materials, or of time and resources required for their preparation
- The suitability of the quarters and equipment to be used
- The adequacy of funds allocated to the center.

d. "Creeping before walking." In general, it is advisable to start first those educational programs that can be undertaken with the least effort. By "making a good splash" with the initial attempt, it becomes easier to expand into more difficult programs. A suggested first training project might consist of a project involving a week or two of full-time instruction, or a part-time program over a longer period. The most difficult undertaking is a curriculum leading to an academic degree.

e. Further information. Chapters III, IV, and V deal with the specific tasks entailed in designing a curriculum leading to an academic degree, teaching methods, the administration of degree programs, and the conduct of non-degree training.

7. Planning the Research Program

The various categories or kinds of research projects to be undertaken by a center comprise an important segment of annual and long-term programs. In some centers, research is the principal function; in others it is complementary to educational responsibilities. Research may be of many types, ranging from the efforts of an instructor to remain abreast of new knowledge in his field to the conduct by a team of scholars of a textbook writing project or a major study of an administrative problem.

a. Assessment of needs. As in manpower planning, a thorough assessment and periodic reassessment are needed of research needs This assessment requires consideration of both the character of research and kinds of projects appropriate for the center, as well as a feasible level of effort.

b. Categories of research. The research plan should include the following kinds of research as appropriate to its purposes and feasible within its resources:

(1) At least minimal activity by instructors essential to enable them to engage in the research necessary to keep abreast of their fields, to improve teaching competences, and to acquire new instructional materials.

(2) Research and developmental activities essential in planning curricula of degree and non-degree programs, including the preparation of syllabi, bibliographies, and other teaching tools.

(3) Proposals for the development of textbooks, handouts, and other duplicated or printed material for teaching programs.

(4) The preparation of informational documents, directories, yearbooks, and similar materials for use by government agencies, public enterprises, business establishments, educational and other organizations, and general public.

(5) Studies of a non-consultancy character of the problems, policies, programs, structures, processes, management and practices, of national, regional, and local governments and of administration involving development efforts.

(6) Comparative studies of ministries or local governments, or comparative analysis of practices among several countries, to contribute to public administration knowledge and to stimulate administrative innovation.

(7) Inquiries into theories of governmental organization, executive leadership and management, economic and social development strategies, formulation and implementation of development plans and programs, and basic problems of management.

c. Optimum level. Not many centers can cover all of these research categories. Most centers are so limited in funds and staff that they are unable to cover effectively categories (1) to (5). Governments need to appreciate that research in public administration is equally necessary for the improvement of administrative capabilities as it is for modernizing agriculture, improving health, or increasing industrial production.

d. Further information. Chapter VI deals with specific questions arising in the planning and implementation of a research program.

8. Planning of Advisory Services

Perhaps the most difficult function to incorporate into a long-term program is advisory or consultancy assistance to government agencies. Such services are difficult to perform well. They are likely to consume much time of the more competent staff members, and the stigma of poor results can injure the reputation of a center. However, as indicated in Chapter VII, there are many advantages to both government and the center in this kind of service if conditions are favorable. One director says that, if successful, "it puts a center on the map as nothing else will."

a. Distinction from research. The difference between research and consultancy projects is not always clear. Some research efforts may evolve into consultancy or advisory assistance. Advisory services usually entail considerable research. Perhaps the key to the difference is the objective. If the purpose of the project is to provide solutions and recommendations on specific problems at the request of public officials, it is clearly consultancy. If it is to provide knowledge for general use or for scholarly or educational objectives, it is clearly research.

b. Policy issues. In formulating an annual or long-term consultancy program, consideration should be given to:

(1) Whether the furnishing of assistance should be a major organized function of the center.

(2) The extent to which individual staff members should be encouraged to respond to requests by officials for advice, and hence the amount of effort to be allowed on the average in work schedules.

(3) The amount of formally negotiated institutional consultancy work which could be anticipated, the potential staff resources to perform it, and how it would be financed.

(4) The organizational arrangements within the center to ensure effective performance.

c. Diversion of resources from other functions. Unless advisory services are part of the planned functions of a center, they may undesirably divert resources from other functions and commitments. Government officials must realize that a center cannot deliver such services unless at least a minimum budgetary provision is made, with supplementary allocations for major projects.

d. Further information. Chapter VII covers the principal issues, problems, and administrative arrangements involved in the conduct of consultancy services.

9. Planning a Publications Program

The distribution of its publications is an important function of every center. Like other functions, the character and quantity of such publications and the resources allocated to them should be programmed and budgeted annually and projected in the center's long-range plan.

a. Categories of publications. The following kinds of publications commonly issued by centers provide a guide for consideration in formulating a publication program.

(1) A minimum program. A center engaged in education and training activities will find it essential to issue a periodic newsletter, materials for teaching purposes, and information circulars on subjects of common interest to students and officials.

(2) Information bulletins. The center's program may include a formal bulletin or memorandum series as a convenient means of disseminating information about the organization, functions, and policies of government, and about significant public administration developments.

(3) Yearbooks and directories. Related to the information bulletins are the larger yearbooks which assemble and publish descriptive and statistical data about government, public services, economic and social matters, and other related subjects. A directory of government officials may be included or issued separately.

(4) Professional journal. Some centers publish a journal, often quarterly. The production of a journal with satisfactory intellectual and professional content is a difficult undertaking, and it should not be undertaken without well-formulated plans and adequate resources.

(5) Research publications. Normally, the results of research should be published in order that maximum benefits can be obtained from them. Therefore, any organized research program should incorporate provision for publication of the results, whether through articles, monographs, or other appropriate forms.

(6) Advisory service publications. Generally studies and reports resulting from consulting assistance yield information worthy of inclusion in a center's publication program. The formal reports prepared through such projects are often published by the government or with its approval.

(7) Handbooks. Handbooks on recommended administrative practices may cover a wide range of public service and management subjects, viz., work programming, budgeting, personnel practices, supervision, project planning and management, purchasing and supply, program development and organization, administrative improvement, automatic data processing, cost reduction.

b. A publications work program. Regarding the character and extent of publications and their distribution, including any potential income from sales, it should be recognized that the preparation of sophisticated, well-edited publications is difficult, and that centers have the tendency to over-commit themselves. Centers may be well-advised to begin with issuing the more informal materials and occasional monographs and not undertake more ambitious publications until their capabilities have been demonstrated.

c. Further information. Chapter VIII outlines the principal tasks and problems entailed in a publications program.

10. Planning a Library and Reference Service

An important feature of every center, regardless of the combination of functions it undertakes, is accessibility to a useful working library in the center's substantive fields.

a. Principal requirements. In the plans for a library program, it is essential to take into account the following:

(1) Use by instructors. The potential use by members of the faculty for constructing courses and preparing bibliographical assignments.

(2) Use by students. The use that degree and non-degree students will make of the books, reports, other documents, and reference materials. Space is needed for study areas and for worktables or carrels that will accommodate such use.

(3) Research needs. The demands that will be made on the library for research and advisory service projects affect the size and character of the library's collections.

(4) Utilization by officials. A useful working library containing practical material, official reports, and both domestic and foreign documents will be utilized by public officials, scholars, teachers, business executives, foreign visitors, and other persons.

(5) Professional staff. The key to a usable library is supervision by a professional librarian able to operate an effective system of acquisitions, cataloging, and services, and of building up a library collection adequate for the center's requirements.

(6) Facilities. The construction of the library and the procurement of equipment should be planned in conjunction with the total functions of the center.

b. Library program. Annual and long-range programs should anticipate library costs, with adequate budgetary provision for materials, supplies, and staff needed for servicing the library.

c. Further information. Chapter IX deals with the tasks entailed in planning and organizing a center's library and reference services.

11. Formulation of Program Budget

The annual and long-term plans of the center should be expressed in both substantive and financial terms. The broad plans for the functions to be performed and other relevant information as described in this chapter should provide a sound basis for establishing the center and enlisting adequate support. These plans must be translated into budgets to enable the center to obtain funds and to ensure control of operations.

a. Work program budget. If the budget includes quantitative measurements of past accomplishments, proposed work, and other relevant program data, the persons who decide on major questions involving the center's program and its funds will have in this document the essential information to facilitate decisions on what should be approved, postponed, revised, or rejected.

b. Budget requirements for each function. Estimates regarding the cost of financing each function or supporting service provide the basis for evaluating and justifying both the annual and the long-term budget.

c. Program execution. After funds have been authorized, the center's staff has both the program and the expenditure guides with which to proceed. It should have sufficient flexibility to enable it to make adjustments in program and in objects of expenditure as new and crucial tasks arise, but this flexibility also should ensure that expenditures remain within the total amount of funds available.

d. Financial planning and control. Chapter XI provides guidelines for preparing and administering budget programs, maintaining accounts, managing funds, and auditing.

12. Evaluation of Programs

Annual and longer-term evaluations of the accomplishments, failures, and other results of a center's programs are essential to the well-being and future development of a center.

a. Evaluation as a regular process. Each course, training project, publication, research endeavor, or advisory service should be evaluated at its conclusion or other appropriate terminal point (1) to assess its accomplishments, (2) to determine the effectiveness with which it was conducted, (3) to develop better guides for future projects, and (4) to indicate whether the function or program should be adjusted in light of project results.

b. Who evaluates. Although the center's staff should undertake self-evaluations as a normal part of its duties, other techniques also should be employed. For example, unsigned evaluations by students enrolled in courses and the use of specially-designed questionnaires can be exceedingly useful. Judgments reached by government officials served by the projects are also significant. Of course, the center's director must make continuing evaluations, with or without special assistance.

c. Limited perspectives. The U.N. Inter-Regional Seminar on the training of civil servants, Geneva, 29 August 1968, noted the limitation (not the disqualification) of evaluation by students which may be little more than a report of "happiness data."

d. External evaluators. A competent external advisor or evaluator drawn from government, a university, or other source from within a country or from abroad, as from another center or from a technical assistance agency, may make a very substantial contribution. The more he knows about centers in other countries the more valuable will be his advice.

e. Guides to evaluation. In suggesting guidelines or principles, the following chapters provide base points for evaluating the achievement and the suitability of a center's programs or services.

Chapter III. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHING METHODS

Purpose. This chapter considers the most crucial aspect of a center, namely, the formulation of adequate curricula for its instructional programs. Although subject to different objectives and clientele, curriculum development involves a similar process, whether for short seminars or workshops, a diploma course of one-year duration, a three- or four-year undergraduate program, a master's program of one or two years, or even a doctoral curriculum. Teaching methods and use of teaching materials are also considered.

1. Steps in Curriculum Development

Six principal steps are embraced in planning and implementing any type of curriculum for a degree program or a comprehensive non-degree educational course or project.

a. Defining the purpose. The starting point is the determination of program objectives: In what fields and for what purpose? The categories or fields to be served, illustrated by the checklist in Chapter II, Section 4, should be clearly identified and their scope and characteristics carefully delineated. Such delineation entails decisions about whether the objective of a given curriculum is primarily to acquire or improve skills of temporary usefulness, to produce attitude changes, or whether it is to broaden the person's capacity to deal with concepts, policies, program, roles, and relationships. This distinction may be expressed as "job-oriented" vs. "career-" or "growth-oriented" education.

b. Analyzing responsibilities. General objectives are subdivided into more specific categories of the kinds of responsibilities, tasks, problems, and situations that the student will probably face, both immediately after completion of his study and five or more years later.

(1) In order to determine the level and character of the proposed learning experience, consideration is given to background of the students to be enrolled, what they already know, their attitudes toward learning, and their basic abilities to solve problems and perform tasks of the type to be encountered in the mastery of the proposed subjects.

(2) For the future, the key question is "what kinds of demands will be made on the students when they function in responsible positions"? Most of the fields enumerated in Chapter II call for very broad interests, understandings, knowledge, skills, and appreciations—far greater than can be covered effectively even in a graduate curriculum.

(3) With both (1) and (2) in mind, and with consultations with government officials, impartial members of the public, and others regarding the principal shortcomings and deficiencies in the country's development administration, a person can reach valid conclusions as to the relative emphasis in a curriculum on preparation for immediate specific duties as opposed to intellectual growth and capacity for increased future professional responsibilities.

c. Selection of areas of knowledge, skill, and values. After the purpose and scope of the curriculum have been resolved, consideration is given to the concepts, knowledge, skills, sensitivities, or values to be acquired. This objective entails a listing of all the various subjects, fields, competences, abilities, and attitudes deemed of importance in facing the responsibilities for which the students are being prepared. Assumptions are made about course work to complement growth and development on the job, so that the student does not expend time and effort at the center learning what can be readily acquired later. The aim is to select the best combination in achieving an integrated program.

d. Framework for the curriculum. The foregoing analyses lead to the formulation of the overall concepts or framework for the curriculum into which specific subject matter and learning experiences can be fitted. The following is an illustration of such a framework or structure for an undergraduate program:

(1) Foundation knowledge of the life, institutions, culture, and environment of a country, or of a specific field or service.

(2) Communicative arts and skills

(3) Social science concepts and methods

(4) Analytical or problem-solving methodologies

(5) Substantive knowledge of government and politics, public services, development problems, sectoral fields or functions, enterprises, and other professional or technological competences relevant to the society.

(6) Administrative theory, processes of administrative and social action, management, executive behavior, organization, and human behavior in administration of change.

(7) Ethics of administration; personal and social responsibility relevant to national development and public service in free society.

(8) Clinical experience in applying (4), (5), (6), and (7) to the local environment.

The big problem is the mix, i.e., determining the proportion of time devoted to each field or subject, the interrelation of subjects, the best sequence or progression of subjects, the balance between theory and practice, and the amount of clinical elements.

e. Design of courses. Within the curriculum structure and allocation of time, the specific courses are designed.

(1) This process entails describing the purpose and coverage of each course, the drafting of a syllabus and bibliography, determination of teaching methods, selection or preparation of textbooks, cases, and other teaching materials, the construction of teaching aids, and the preparation of instructors' guides. These steps are elaborated in Chapter IV.

(2) Non-degree training projects usually are not subdivided into courses; they normally have parts or divisions of a comprehensive syllabus. In other aspects, the development of instructional elements of non-degree and degree programs are similar. The development of non-degree programs is covered in Chapter V.

(3) The identification of elements in a curricular framework under (d) does not mean that each course should be confined to a specific element listed in the illustration or in other frameworks.

> Administration involves performance of tasks and solving problems in various substantive fields and environments, using analytical skills and working through organizations. Thus, professional courses embrace these instructional elements in different combinations, always with an applied or operational focus.

f. Student orientation. The purpose of a curriculum is to develop capacities of persons—to change their behavior. Thus the courses and other learning opportunities should be related to the needs, environmental conditions, limitations, problems, fears, aspirations, and maturity of the students.

(1) Not only is it necessary to focus attention on future responsibilities of the students, but the instruction should be related to their current state of development and aspirations. This requirement calls for consultation with students during the process of development of the courses, including instructional methods, in order to ascertain their educational needs.

(2) Courses require constant review to ensure that they are achieving their objectives. An instructor may deviate substantially from the course description without it being observed, unless a student complains.

(3) The content of a course, each time it is given, requires adjustment to make it as meaningful as possible to each group.

(4) Course content and progression are based on an evolving conceptual structure that reflects recent research findings and experience.

(5) Effective instructors look into what is known about learning methods in order to decide both the subject matter and methods suitable to a particular course and group.

2. The Feasibility of Professional Study

Some persons ask if it is feasible to provide a curriculum in public or development administration. Is there a legitimate body of knowledge to be communicated? What is the difference between professional education and study of a discipline? Is not the study of economics, political science, or law sufficient? Because there is much confusion and some skepticism in these matters, such questions warrant attention before consideration of the specific course content of a curriculum.

a. Divergent views about education in administration. Five divergent traditions have grown as to the kind of education most relevant for administrative careers in the public service, each of which is being rapidly modified as countries face the realities of finding persons capable of policy and program planning, organizing, and administering complex development efforts and public services.

(1) First is the "generalist" view in educational and government circles in some countries and among certain groups in all countries that an intelligent and persevering person of good character, who is able to excell in examinations in whatever field he has studied, is as well prepared as anyone else, irrespective of the field. Most advocates of this view do not believe in the usefulness of trying to provide professional education for public administration or in allied fields.

(2) Another tradition especially prevalent in Europe, Latin America, and the Middle East is the belief that the study of law is the appropriate path for any person seeking admission and promotion in positions of administrative responsibilities in the public service. This view appears to have special appeal to lawyers.

(3) There is a tendency to shift from (1) and (2) situations toward a system of education and assignment that stresses the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and techniques applicable to narrow administrative tasks. Emphasis is on specific training for immediate career responsibilities such as accounting, personnel, supply, budgeting, and organization and methods. This approach may help solve specialized personnel needs, but it does not contribute much to coping with administrative generalist and program administration responsibilities.

(4) In an increasing number of countries, it is contended that the complexity of today's administrative problems calls for the contribution of persons who have had the benefit of various kinds of general and specialized professional education featuring the application of administrative knowledge and skills to specific substantive areas and environmental situations. A professional curriculum in public or development administration,

in business administration, or in some other sectoral or broad field of application as catalogued in Chapter II will, according to this perception, provide a student with better perspectives, knowledge, orientation, skills, sensitivities, and commitment for immediate and long-term career responsibilities in administration than the study of some single discipline such as economics, biology, literature, political science, or chemistry. It does not assume that completion of a program in public administration necessarily produces a good administrator, or that administrators never should be appointed from other sources. This fourth perspective is obviously the one reflected in this Handbook.

(5) If professional education in an administrative field can "top off" a general or liberal education or a degree in a professional field such as law, engineering, agriculture, architecture, or health, the combination can prove to be very effective.

b. A communicable body of knowledge and skills. An analysis of the responsibilities and tasks performed by administrators as proposed in Section 1-b reveals many common elements. A vast body of literature has grown in relation to these tasks, featuring goal formation, policy development and resolution, administrative and organizational theory, executive and group behavior, processes of management, institution building, analytical methods, and applications in various substantive fields and environments. Although much research and far better textbooks and other teaching material are needed, the resources already available are impressive.

c. Operational focus. The kind of curriculum discussed here has an applied or operational focus. It is concerned with development, social and economic change, with initiation of programs and services, with building and managing organizations, with improving conditions of people, in short, with "administering change." A major part of a curriculum appropriately emphasizes these operational or managerial aspects. An illustration of the scope of management operations applicable to any function or field is found in Appendix A, entitled "Tasks of Management." Through examination of the tasks and responsibilities of a specific area of administration in an indigenous situation, desirable knowledge and capabilities can be identified.

d. Problem-solving. The principal skill required in administration is problem-solving ability, e.g., the analysis and resolution of policy, program, organizational, managerial, and operational problems. Appendix B presents a "Model for Administrative Problem-Solving." Clinical simulations or field projects involving the application of problem-solving methods should comprise a very substantial component of course work in any public or business administration curriculum. The intellectual process reflected in this model is applicable to all rational decision-making as well as to the conduct of intensive studies.

e. A dynamic process. Administration is a dynamic process and is at the center of governmental activities and responsibilities at all levels. Administrators can be action people, developers, and change agents; and training in administration is an entree into the successful performance of these important and interesting tasks.

3. Relation to the Social Sciences

Political science, economics, psychology, sociology, and other social sciences make a major contribution to a curriculum in administration, as well as to the preparation of persons for positions calling for other areas of expertise.

a. Orientation. Because the main purpose of social science studies is to develop persons with knowledge, teaching, and research competences in one or a combination of social sciences, they normally play a different role from that of curricula in administration. They comprise essentially discrete disciplines, not an interdisciplinary-based professional curriculum.

b. Non-operational. To illustrate this difference in outlook, it is useful to note how persons oriented to a disciplinary or technical background often approach administrative responsibilities from a specialized or segmented point of view and thus overlook operational elements.

(1) Economists tend to assume that development is primarily a matter of setting goals, adopting the right monetary policies, and the allocation of resources, with the assumption that plans are self-implementing.

(2) Political scientists are interested in political processes, the analysis of structures and political ideas, predominantly from an analytical and methodological standpoint rather than administrative action.

(3) Statisticians often are so bogged down with data and projections that they overlook the obvious fact that programs and projects must be formulated and administered.

(4) Engineers become engrossed in the technical details of projects, while questions of economic value, social contribution, and administrative feasibility are neglected.

(5) Agricultural specialists, public health, and other sectoral personnel are usually so enmeshed in their specific functions that balanced adjustment to strategic development criteria is thwarted.

(6) Lawyers preoccupied with procedural and juridical processes are diverted from the main policy and program elements.

(7) And it should be added that public administrators trained in technique-oriented curricula may be so engrossed in administrative mechanics that substantive and policy issues and the human factors are overlooked.

c. Contribution to substantive competence. The important contributions of social scientists to administration involve teaching and research in those areas in which they excel; e.g., the contribution of economists in development economics and economic planning; of political scientists in political leadership and the politics of development; of anthropologists in the relationships between administration and values or other cultural factors; and of sociologists in societal organization and power relationships. Courses in the professional curriculum that focus on the process and strategy of development; on administrative planning and programming; project implemention; optimal use of resources; industrial, agricultural, educational, and other sectoral administration; and on organization for development need to draw on the insights of social sciences, but the specially-designed social science courses are different from social science courses in a liberal arts setting. They should have an operational or applied orientation, and they should be "terminal" in character and not a stage in a progression of specialized courses to produce an expert economist or political scientist. Instructors should be interdisciplinary in recognition of this difference in purpose.

d. Foundation knowledge. A second role of social scientists is to provide a foundation for persons subsequently undertaking advanced professional study for administrative and operational responsibilities. Any generalist or specialist in administration should have some grounding in the scope, methods, and contributions that the social sciences, including psychology, can make to his field. It may be desirable for centers training administrators to provide preparatory or basic course work in the social sciences, but social science study, as such, is not the central subject matter of curricula in administration.

4. Characteristics of Professional Education

These benchmarks provide further clues to the inherent characteristics of a professional curriculum.

a. The professional additive. Medicine, for example, is universally recognized as comprising a broader range of knowledge than the study of biology or anatomy; it entails diagnosis and treatment, and clinical preparation and experience. Business administration is universally recognized as far broader than the study of economics. Similarly, public or development administration consists of far more than courses in political science or the social sciences or law, with a few additives. It has a different orientation and purpose.

b. Public administration. In addition to being well informed about the environment in which he operates and about the resources and analytical insights of the social sciences, an administrator needs professional competences such as:

(1) Familiarity with the processes and organizational requisites of government at various levels.

(2) Knowledge of the administrative skills used to accomplish managerial tasks and organizational objectives.

(3) Aptitude and skill in administrative problem-solving including the applicability of quantitative methods and systems analysis.

(4) An understanding of the requirements and processes of administrative action.

(5) An appreciation of the policy role of administrators in formulating programs, building organizations, recruiting and developing staff, negotiating support and funds, and motivating the organization to function as a unity.

(6) Sensitivity to political, technological, cultural, and environmental factors and an understanding of their relevance to administrative action.

These competences either relate to broad goals or policy objectives of a national, regional, or local government, or to sectors or substantive fields such as public works, agriculture, education, and public health. The same applies to business administration, industrial development, and commerce.

c. Development administration. This knowledge is supplemented by elements of the development process such as the following in the formulation of a curriculum in development administration:

(1) Assessment of development needs and obstacles in the formation of objectives and goals.

(2) Analysis of resources, conditions, and capabilities that determine the feasibility of goals, plans, and programs.

(3) Development of strategies, policies, and concepts to guide the nation, region, or city in pursuing its goals.

(4) Preparation of development plans with due reference to social, economic, political, and administrative factors.

(5) The design and execution of programs and projects to implement plans and policies.

(6) The motivation and education of people to change values, habits, practices, and roles.

(7) The creation of organizations, institutions, systems, and procedures for plan implementation.

(8) The development of personnel with capabilities to perform these tasks.

(9) The evaluation of progress, methods, and costs.

d. Other criteria. Looked at in these contexts, the framework suggested for the curriculum in Section 1-d gains significance.

(1) This kind of education stresses the solution of problems. The mastery of analytical and problem-solving methodologies as applied to administrative situations, sectoral fields, and technical operations produces both immediately-usable skills and capacity for career growth. Although they can be incidentally included, descriptions of government structures and administrative procedures have little stress in professional education in public administration.

(2) Another characteristic of this type of curriculum is its emphasis on comparative studies and problems of cross-cultural adaptation. How have other jurisdictions solved comparable problems? How do the values, traditional attitudes, and ways of a society affect the manner in which organizations and programs are designed and implemented? Instructional programs thus draw on universal experience, but also recognize the significance of human factors and environmental influences that characterize a problem and condition the policies and procedures suitable to a given situation.

(3) In designing curricula and selecting instructors, a center is well advised to tap the knowledge and skills of relevant disciplines and professions, but to avoid course work from the perspective of one specialized discipline. A multidisciplinary approach is achieved, as some astute observer has noted, when varied disciplinary contributions are blended under one skull.

5. Illustrative Curricula

Obviously no standard curriculum may be prescribed. Many kinds of curricula are needed, each tailored to its specific situation. Some centers will have several curricula for different purposes in degree as well as non-degree programs.

a. Illustration of a comprehensive curriculum. Appendix C illustrates how these various factors may be reflected in the design of curriculum. This curriculum assumes the decision of a center to help fulfill a country's need for administrative staff in five broad public service fields: governmental administration, development administration (social and economic development), business and enterprise management, local government and municipal administration, and international affairs administration. Appendix C might be most accurately described as a store of building blocks which may be utilized in various combinations to serve various educational purposes. These purposes might range from a three- or four-year undergraduate program following immediately or later by a one- or two-year master's degree program. Or blocks might be utilized to construct a two-year undergraduate program or a one- or two-year postgraduate program.

(1) If a country's educational development, resources, and civil service selection system will support reliance upon postgraduate education, a professional undergraduate program of the intensity of Appendix C would not be suitable. University graduates from the arts, social and physical sciences, agriculture, engineering, law, and other professional fields could be enrolled in a postgraduate program. However, undergraduate curricula utilizing some or many of the building blocks of Appendix C would provide both more relevant and more liberal education than now found in many traditional undergraduate curricula.

(2) If an undergraduate program is being designed, students will especially need a grounding in the communicative arts, mathematics, statistics, history, institutions, and life of the country. Such students will lack social science foundations, notably in economics, political science, sociology, psychology, and law. As a result, courses have been included in Appendix C to provide basic knowledge in the social sciences and an appreciation of the applicability, especially their research methodologies, to professional study.

(3) The structure of the curriculum represents a progression of courses through four years. The first year stresses general education and "tool" courses. The second year focuses on the social sciences with some orientation to administration common to all fields. The third year enables extension of the professional courses relevant to all fields with initial specialization in specific fields. The fourth and fifth years consist of more advanced professional study.

(4) The courses have been selected to fulfill in a balanced way the elements in the curriculum framework listed above in Section 1-d. The courses become increasingly operational with a problem-solving or clinical orientation during the fourth and fifth years.

(5) The educational assumptions in Appendix C represents a considerable departure from traditional university practices. Some of the courses find their counterpart in some existing program, while others are based on what appears most relevant for policy formulation, program management, and general administrative positions in developing countries. Centers within universities have less freedom for experimentation than independent centers, but the readiness of an increasing number of universities to restructure their academic programs to reflect needs and realities is most heartening.

b. Illustrative master's curriculum. Dean Hahn-Been Lee of the Graduate School of Public Administration, Seoul National University, Korea, has incorporated a master's program in "A Handbook of Development Administration Curriculum" prepared for the International Institute of Administrative Sciences. It is well worth examining.

(1) In a model syllabus describing the core of a curriculum, Dean Lee divides the subjects into two parts, the first a macro part involving the "development outlook" and a micro part involving the roles and functions of development administrators.

(2) Five fields are identified for each part to be covered by selections of courses.

Part I. Development Components and Combinations

- The Concept of Development
- The Study of Social Change
- Dynamics of Economic Development
- Dynamics of Political Development
- Development Administration

Part II. Functions of Development Administrators

- The Administrator as Innovator
- Formulation of Public Policy
- Management of Development Programs
- Conduct of Administrative Reforms
- Institution Building

(3) In a two-year master's program, the number of course options would be much greater than in a one-year program.

c. Illustration of non-degree program. Chapter V, Section 6, describes the preparation of work plans and syllabi for non-degree training projects. Appendix G illustrates a program outline or syllabus for a four-month institute of administrative management for development.

d. Innovation. Any curriculum suitable for a specific center should differ from any recommended pattern and especially from the curriculum of a university serving a different kind of society. To this end, a center should avoid:

(1) Assigning the curriculum to a specialized faculty, notably in a single discipline.

(2) Following traditional educational patterns within the country.

(3) Maintenance of courses and methods utilized by the center in its formative days. Any curriculum that has not been changed within two or three years is out of date.

(4) Adopting unrelated curricula from highly industrialized countries or borrowing programs from centers in low-income countries with different needs and conditions.

(5) Adhering blindly to the myth of "international standards," which usually consist of practices remembered distantly and fondly by some faculty member. Such matters as the academic calendar, concepts of educational progression, length of courses, class hours per week, the methods of grading, and method of teaching, introduced into developing countries by colonial officers or external advisors, frequently are irrelevant to indigenous situations.

e. Winning support. In curriculum-building and in the continual modification of curricula, as well as in other aspects of an academic program, it is desirable to obtain the fullest possible involvement of the center's staff, students, appropriate government officials, and if available, technical cooperation advisors in public administration. Perhaps a special commission or committee may help develop an innovative curriculum applicable to the special circumstances of the country. Broadly accepted and fully established objectives, concepts, and elements of the curriculum facilitate the work of each instructor in formulating a relevant content and form of his courses. They help to create a faculty allegiance to the unique characteristics of the program and to willing compliance in its implementation.

6. Producing a Learning Experience

Teaching is a science and an art as well as a profession. It requires an awareness of what constitutes a learning experience plus the ability to create a learning situation that produces major change in the intellectual and emotional behavior of the student.

a. Creating the conditions of learning. All instructors face the challenge of creating the conditions in which learning actually takes place. Recognizing that learning is an active process, an effective instructor concentrates on the means by which students can be deeply involved in efforts to assimilate and apply learning. It is, therefore, necessary to investigate the conditions under which the acquisition of knowledge, comprehension of concepts, development of competence or skill, change of attitudes, and appreciation of values are likely to occur. He must utilize the teaching methods that foster such occurrence.

b. Motivations, opportunities, and satisfactions. The Faculty Handbook of the Graduate School, U.S. Department of Agriculture, drawing on the writings of Harry L. Miller and Roger Garrison, lists six conditions that an instructor should try to achieve:

(1) The student must be adequately motivated to change behavior.

(2) The student must be aware of the inadequacy of his behavior.

(3) The student must have a clear picture of the behavior he is attempting to adopt.

(4) The student must have opportunities to practice what he is learning.

(5) The student must have available a sequence of appropriate materials.

(6) The student must gain satisfaction from learning.

c. Effect of teaching methods. The method of instruction largely determines whether these conditions can be achieved. Different subjects call for different methods of structuring the instruction and use of teaching techniques. Active participation, in contrast to passivity or merely memorizing, is essential in a learning situation. The instructor may dominate or stay in the background, but the students always must be involved, clarifying meanings, making applications, handling increasingly difficult abstractions, internalizing and reorganizing ideas, and developing frameworks with which to judge new data or situations. As emphasized, in mastering a profession, the student above all is concerned with how to analyze situations, solve problems, apply knowledge, and change things. His courses should be conducted in a way that maximizes the development of such competences.

7. Teaching Methods

The "staging" of a course by determining session by session what will be done and the teaching methods to be used casts the instructor in a role comparable to that of the author and producer of a play. His course needs structure, form, setting, scenery, props, actors, contrasts, conflict, novelty, comedy, crisis, denouement, emotion, and an ending. The following paragraphs on teaching methods draw from the papers in the IIAS Symposium on Education in Public Administration, notably on the Survey of Teaching Methods by Anne F. Leemans of the Institute of Social Studies at the Hague.

a. The lecture. Lecturing in the conventional sense is being rapidly abandoned as the principal method of instruction. When weighed in the balance of fulfilling conditions of real learning, it is found wanting on many counts.

(1) Its two assets are that it makes possible full utilization of the voice and the same message can be conveyed simultaneously to a large number of persons.

(2) Unless lectures provide some means of student involvement, such as an opportunity (a) to draw generalizations from phenomena in which the students are involved, (b) to assess the merit of texts, readings, and propositions, or (c) to respond to questions, issues, and unresolved problems that perplex the students, it would be preferable to reproduce the lectures and let the students read them.

(3) To be avoided is a continuous stream of one-way communication that adds little to what can be read. In its worst form, the reading of laws, rules, procedures, and other descriptive material to a class is a practice that occurs more frequently than is known.

(4) On the positive side, lecturing can contribute to learning if used in combination with other methods. A lecture needs to be well planned, outlined, mastered, and staged, with much change of pace, use of illustrations, visual aids, humor, and drama. The combination of an introductory lecture with the subsequent division of the students into small discussion or problem-solving work groups is having increasing use.

b. Assigned readings. Equally conventional as the lecture method is the assignment of readings for study outside of the classroom, including writing of book reports and similar "checkups." This reading material may be textbooks available to each student, books or other documents in the center's library, or handouts prepared and distributed to each student. Library assignments are employed to provide supplementary information, to acquaint the student with the variety of resources available, and to present him with opposing points of views represented by various authors. Classroom handouts may be used to substitute for formal textbooks or to supplement them.

c. Instructors seminar. This technique involves a discussion group type of seminar in which the instructor takes a leading role in introducing ideas, concepts, problem situations, and conclusions. The students prepare themselves in assigned readings and engage in active discussions following class discussion guides provided by the instructor. See Chapter IV, Section 5-c.

d. Student seminars. This type of seminar makes a further break than the instructor's seminar in involving students in active participation. Each student prepares a paper which becomes the subject of discussion, and even attack, by the fellow students. This method not only provides knowledge, but it also stimulates the student's capacity to collect data, form an opinion, and to argue cogently on a subject. The seminar may be conducted by a single instructor or a panel of instructors who offer multidisciplinary viewpoints and who may even take opposing views on the presentations of the students. The seminars may be chaired by the instructor or by a student chairman; alternatively, the student presenting the paper may be the seminar leader temporarily. Another student may be designated to write a summary report of the session, a practice that trains students to follow discussions closely, analyze them, summarize the main issues, and draw conclusions. The instructor must ensure that all seminar students are active participants, which is possible only if the class size remains limited in numbers. This kind of seminar requires very mature students and is not feasible except at advanced levels.

e. Case study. The case method is old in the study of law, but relatively recent in business administration (as at Harvard University) and in public administration. There is not full agreement as to what constitutes a case, but the method can be described as a full and searching study of a given event, situation, or problem, the full facts of which are presented to the student in a file or detailed monograph. The student learns to analyze a situation, to indicate the major problems involved, to assess the relevance of facts and factors, and hopefully to draw generalizations. Most cases contribute foundation knowledge rather than advanced skills. A center usually must start modestly with this method until suitable cases are available. If used, cases should be carefully adapted to the objectives of the courses and the state of development of the students.

f. Preparation of project papers. An increasingly common and effective teaching method is the assignment of problems in the form of a described situation or a requirement to investigate and report on an actual situation. Papers in response to these assignments may be prepared individually or as group efforts by two or more students. The goals of this teaching method are much the same as those of the case method, and, in fact, the paper may be the result of a case study. A major difference from case study, however, is that the project places more emphasis on preparing written solutions to problems. The paper demonstrates how the student applies the knowledge learned to a specific problem or provides specific "for instances" from which concepts and generalizations are developed.

g. Simulations or case problems. In contrast to the use of a highly organized descriptive text of events and happenings of traditional case study, or field study of an actual situation, the instructor may utilize simulated case problems. These problems provide the essential ingredients of a situation to which the task of the student is to provide the analysis and solution of a problem. This task consists of preparing a report, memorandum of recommendation, a letter or other document to fill the requirements of the situation; or to develop alternate courses of action, with pros and cons, as a process in achieving the best solution. It is feasible to create a fictitious country and to give it all of the characteristics required for problem-solving exercises applicable to a variety of courses. Such simulations can be introduced into almost any type of class and serve as the basis for project papers or examinations.

h. Role-playing. The use of role-playing in either fictitious or real situations has long been used in the teaching of law where the moot court is well known. This method is applicable in the teaching of administration for both the neophyte and the experienced public official. The technique is simple. The students are assigned roles as officials faced with some administrative problem, policy issue, or situation in which action is required. The students in these roles conform to the normal behavior of officials and interact, often with drama and emotion. Gaming, or decision exercises with use of computers, is an advanced form of role-playing. Role-playing, gaming, and other simulations offer a form of vicarious experience, providing many of the advantages without the inherent risks of actual experience. They provide a clinical or laboratory element to the curriculum. They enable the instructor to ascertain the extent to which theoretical knowledge may be applied to practical situations and affect administrative behavior. It has been assumed that the retiring type of student is overlooked or ill-adapted to role-playing, but often the reverse is true.

i. The syndicate method. This method, pioneered by the Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames, is being increasingly used in other countries. In essence, it consists of convening the members of the training group as a forum to consider and work out solutions for a major problem or issue or a series of problems. The group develops its own internal structure and leadership, makes assignments to individuals or subgroups, and carries forward analyses, studies, and deliberations. The end product is a statement of findings, conclusions, and recommendations. This method contains some role-playing and group discussion characteristics. The instructors develop the proposed plan of action, provide background materials and readings, and stand ready for consultation, but, on the whole, their role is a passive one.

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j. Tutorials. The tutorial method is most common among British universities. It is possible only under a low instructor-student ratio, because it is very time-consuming. It involves periodic meetings between a student and his tutor to discuss a given subject. Since there is value in interaction among students, tutorials bringing together several students have gained favor. The tutorial system is a scheduled and more inclusive method of fulfilling an "open office hours" policy during which students may approach the instructor to discuss problems of the course. Tutorial or discussion groups may be used to supplement lecturing in large classes. The tutorials clarify or elaborate on points made during the lecture, or they consider supplementary reading by the student. Although of great value for all students, they are often especially beneficial for the weak student who requires additional attention.

k. Programmed learning and teaching machines. Still in an experimental stage are the devices of programmed learning and teaching machines, but they hold great promise in applying the latest insights about the learning process to education at all levels. Programmed learning techniques also permit wide use of specially prepared materials despite a limited availability of instructors. They are adaptable to traveling instructional teams and to correspondence programs. A growing amount of materials in administration has been produced for use with the teaching machines.

l. Sensitivity training. One of the newer learning methods focuses on the interactions of members in the classroom to demonstrate the organizational behavior of individuals and groups. Largely based on the inductive learning process, there can be demonstrated leadership styles, group loyalties, negotiation methods, and motivational factors in an effective and meaningful manner. This method can be utilized for the personal growth and development of students or to illustrate the interpersonal or organizational dynamics of specific cases or situations that occur in administration. Various exercises have been designed for this style of learning. See Nylen, Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training (National Training Laboratories, Washington, D.C., 1967) for a readily available collection of activities that are adaptable to the needs of developing countries.

m. Tests and examinations. Although tests and examinations are used primarily as evaluating devices, they also serve as a teaching method, inasmuch as they stimulate the student to desired activity if he wishes to perform well in a test or examination. Tests force students to organize their knowledge in an orderly manner and to present this knowledge clearly. The test requires the student to master his subject to the extent that he can communicate or apply it in response to questions that cannot be anticipated precisely in advance. In professional education, the assignment of a clinical exercise often provides the best means of evaluating the student's ability to synthesize and apply knowledge gained in the classroom or through reading.

n. Theses or research reports. Project papers are related to specific courses. A thesis or research report is often required as a supplement to course work to provide the student with experience in a major analytical or research effort. Students should be encouraged to choose subjects with which they are not already familiar in order to expand their knowledge and to enable them to apply without prejudice the principles they learned in a course to a specific situation. The subjects of papers and theses may be either practical or theoretical, but most centers insist on a combination of the two elements for maximum usefulness for both current and potential public administrators. While the study may rely primarily on [illegible] sources, this reliance is far less meaningful than field work to gather primary data. One way to accomplish this objective is to assign the students to observation of an agency or program and to analysis of its administration in terms of what they have been taught. Close supervision of the student in the preparation of a major paper ensures that he is following good approaches and is obtaining the greatest benefit to himself from the experience. Theses or research papers may be a requirement for a bachelor's or master's degree. The most expensive and exhaustive form of paper used as an educational device is, of course, the doctoral dissertation.

o. Internships. Internships are of special benefit for students who have had no prior practical experience. The purpose of an internship is to enable such a student to gain insight into the actualities of administration. He can gain these insights through observation, through field research involving interviews and examination of records, or through actual performance of administrative functions. Internships require advance preparation and close collaboration between the center and the operating offices to ensure that the intern will receive maximum benefit from his experience. There is the danger that an official will consider the young intern to be either a nuisance or a "ready hand" for routine chores. A successful assignment requires an official to be interested in providing the intern with a creative experience.

6. Teaching Aids

The physical facilities used in teaching, including classroom materials, are important factors to success in instruction.

a. Classroom facilities. The classes require rooms that are comfortable, well lighted, adequately heated, cooled or ventilated, attractively decorated, and quiet. Comfortable, durable, and functional furniture, notably chairs and tables, aid greatly in the conduct of a session.

b. Equipment. In addition to blackboards, flip boards, easels, film projectors, and other standard equipment, some of the recently developed teaching methods require new kinds of viewing machines and projectors, teaching machines, automatic data-processing equipment, computers, amplifiers, simultaneous translation, reception, and video equipment, and closed circuit television. Some equipment may be too costly for the results derived, even if the resources were available. Thorough study of the kind and extent of probable use is thus indicated in the purchase of expensive equipment.

c. Keeping abreast. Special effort is required to keep abreast of developments in teaching methods and the use of new kinds of instructional aids. One method is to designate a staff member with special interest to review journals and books in which such matters are reported and to circularize all instructors with information. Staff meetings and clinics on instruction methods provide other opportunities. Assistance in the preparation of flip charts, slides, and transparencies, and for supplying projectors and other equipment to classrooms both encourages and makes feasible the use of these aids.

d. Maintenance. Often expensive equipment stands idle for lack of a spare part or of knowledge about how to repair it. To ensure skilled operation and maintenance, it is prudent to arrange for one or more staff members to be thoroughly instructed in the construction and technical features of the machine. It is necessary to develop a plan for speedy delivery of spare parts and for competent maintenance service.

e. Residential center. For certain types of education, a residential center is highly desired. It is especially useful if the course is very intensive and if there is a desire to integrate both the students and faculty into an effective learning community.

Chapter IV. ADMINISTRATION OF ACADEMIC PROGRAMS

Purpose. This chapter considers the various tasks entailed in the administration of academic programs normally leading to a diploma or a degree. It covers the dissemination of information about the center's curricula; organization of academic work; recruitment and development of instructors; formulation of course schedules and conduct of courses; recruitment, admission, and placement of students; and evaluation of teaching competences and course achievement.

1. Descriptive Bulletin

A bulletin, prospectus, calendar, or catalogue describing the academic programs of a center serves many purposes. It forces the staff of the center to consider and resolve all issues of policy and arrangements. It answers most questions prospective students need to know. It supplies important information about the center to educational institutions, government officials, and persons whose financial or other support is desired. The exchange of such documents with centers in other countries and international assistance agencies stimulates worldwide improvement in the operation of centers.

a. Diversity of practices. Centers follow widely differing practices. In some schools or institutes, the bulletin is a very formal and informative document of fifty to one hundred printed pages. Other centers may issue only a small two- or four-page folder, or a prospectus may consist of a dozen mimeographed pages. Some centers issue no document of this type at all, but rely on their annual report or on a formal announcement at the beginning of each program.

b. Minimum content. Any academic program worth conducting is worth publicizing. At a minimum, a bulletin or announcement should describe each program's purposes, general characteristics, fields of study, and degrees awarded. At least the course titles, and preferably brief descriptions, should be included, as well as qualifications for admission and procedures for making application. Requirements for successful completion of the course of study and award of a diploma or degree should be delineated. Prospective students require information on the academic calendar, method of application, costs, living arrangements, and possible financial assistance.

c. Distribution. The bulletin provides a means of introducing the center and its programs to various publics, and therefore it should be accompanied by transmittal letters adapted to the different categories of recipients. Secondary schools, colleges, government agencies, technical assistance organizations, and foundations likely to sponsor students should be apprised in order to aid in the channeling of talented students to the center.

2. Responsibility for Instructional Program

To conduct a formal academic program, the center must be authorized by charter, legislation, or other instrument of legitimacy to engage in academic education leading to the award of degrees. This authority may consist of a degree-granting relationship with a university. If the center is a constituent part of a university, the senate, council, vice chancellor, chancellor, rector, and other governing boards or officials may authorize the conduct of programs and the granting of degrees.

a. Instructional organization. The instructional staff of academic institutions are organized in units variously identified as colleges, schools, departments, divisions, and faculties. The nature of this organization differs widely depending on whether it follows the British pattern, a continental European model, one of the varied arrangements employed in the United States, or some plan developed locally. In many countries, the term "faculty" means the major organizational unit into which a university is subdivided, but in others it is a generic term to identify academic staff as opposed to other employees.

b. Academic officers. Colleges, schools, departments, or faculties are headed by academic officers with various titles such as provost, dean, director, head, and chairman. In many situations, these officers are elected by their peers from among their number. The heads of departments, for example, may elect the dean of a school, faculty, or college; and deans, in turn, may elect the rector or chancellor. In dynamic institutions, where effective democratic processes are coupled with strong leadership, academic officers are appointed by superior officers, after consultation and informal or formal consent by instructional staff.

c. Authority for curricula. A center should be responsible for designing its curricula and determining minimum requirements, subject to general standards and policies issued by higher academic authority as may apply to it. If a particular curriculum requires approval by a senate or university council, the approval should relate to the general concepts, coverage and requirements, but not to specific courses. There is no merit in having academic persons from widely different substantive fields sit in judgment of the content of courses with which they have no familiarity. The instructional staff of a center should consult with many persons and groups in the development of curricula, and it should welcome suggestions or criticisms from any qualified source, but the composition of specific courses should be the responsibility of the instructional group most directly involved. If such groups propose courses that are patently unsatisfactory, there are always sufficient critics to force reconsideration.

Reason for autonomy. One reason why academic programs in public administration and related public service fields have not flourished in some countries is because of their subordination to the disciplines of political science, economics, or law. Another cause is unnecessary and undesirable control over curriculum, development, coverage, and financing exercised by a traditional academic body such as a university senate. Experience indicates that, under either situation, a new professional field such as public administration is apt to be suppressed. Although a department such as political science, economics, or law may decide to initiate a public administration program, the restricted jurisdiction and concerns of most of its members inevitably will limit unduly the scope of the enterprise. In the competition for limited budgetary resources, the older elements in the department will feel threatened and will curtail the resources available to public administration fields. Likewise, decisions in the university-wide governing bodies almost always will favor traditional programs, maintenance of the status quo, and allocation of resources to the older programs. As a result, a new and unknown program may be starved, even if permitted to obtain a foothold. A common practice in faculty boards of English-patterned universities is to authorize voting by anyone who teaches in a program, permitting instructors from other faculties sometimes to out-vote the professionally-qualified instructors of a center.

e. Dynamic elements. If a center enjoys talented and innovative leadership, free from such paralyzing constraints, an alert, vigorous, resourceful, progressive, and influential instructional staff can be developed. This kind of staff entails continuous internal consultation, frequent faculty meetings, and devotion to the center's objectives. Advisory groups on curricula and other program matters may add support to this dynamism.

3. Developing the Instructors

The quality of an academic program depends on the quality of instructors and on the effectiveness of academic leadership. Inasmuch as few universities have produced graduates at the master's or doctoral level in public administration, or allied professional fields, the supply of qualified instructors is severely limited. It is necessary, therefore, to secure persons with practical experience or who have shifted their primary concern from a discipline such as political science, economics, sociology, or law to public administration. The fields of business administration, public health, social work, engineering, and education also provide potential talent. Unless such persons are enlisted, a curriculum in public administration may be little more than an expanded curriculum in political science, economics, or law. Therefore, the criteria for selection of instructors cannot be the same as applied to traditional academic disciplines, but must be modified to meet different instructional demands. The requisite that they possess a doctor's degree should be waived if the best available prospects do not meet this requirement. The combination of formal education and pertinent experience must be evaluated as a totality.

a. Multidisciplinary. Inasmuch as a professional program must utilize all relevant fields of knowledge — disciplinary and professional — a center should recruit instructors with varied backgrounds.

A large center could have a staff representing a dozen or more academic disciplines and professions. Inasmuch as teaching in a professional program differs from that in a discipline, it is essential that all members be oriented to a multidisciplinary approach and be committed to an applied or operational focus.

b. Development of teaching potential. In some countries, few persons currently have a suitable combination of education and experience to be given instructional responsibilities in public administration. Knowledge of a subject does not, in itself, produce a good instructor. Sometimes the greater the knowledge the less skilled an instructor may be in conceptual analysis and in developing and testing hypotheses or generalizations. Skill in teaching is not something one is born with. It requires systematic study and development, just as skill in surgery or any other professional art is based on training. Centers use many methods to develop these teaching competences.

(1) Both young degree holders and more senior staff members, who may be lacking an advanced degree, are sent to universities at home or abroad with relevant programs. Most of these persons thus receive professional education in public administration, business administration, local government, economic and social development, international administration, financial administration, public health, or public works.

(2) Persons recruited from academic backgrounds, notably from the younger staff, will benefit by secondment to government agencies for brief tours of duty.

(3) Another method for the inexperienced academic person to learn about problems, structure, processes, and other realities of government is to be assigned to serve on research and consultancy projects.

(4) Because skill in teaching is not a natural competence, all instructors in a center need to study teaching methods, how to plan and conduct a course, how to develop teaching materials, use of visual aids, and ways to evaluate teaching effectiveness. To this end a center needs to assemble readings and handbooks on such matters. The IIAS has issued two relevant symposia, "Education in Public Administration: Teaching Methods and Materials"

and "Education for Development Administration," which every staff member of a center should study. The IIAS is also preparing handbooks on special teaching methods, such as the syndicate approach.

(5) Some centers use staff meetings as a forum for considering the applicability of various teaching methods to their courses, and for reporting experiences of the instructors.

(6) Arrangements may be made for an especially skillful instructor to conduct a clinic or workshop for other staff members.

(7) Team teaching is another means to develop teaching skill in both the neophyte and senior persons. Young instructors engaged in their first teaching experience should be associated with a senior staff member in the conduct of courses.

(8) Instructors should be well acquainted with the principal books and reference materials in their fields, but the current high volume of production of such materials makes this standard a fairly heavy burden.

(9) Regardless of the practical experience of the instructor, it is always necessary in designing a course and developing teaching materials to investigate the nature of responsibilities, functions, problems, and difficulties which the students will confront in their daily lives. Problem-solving exercises, case discussions, and field trips also provide an educational experience for the instructor.

c. Academic qualifications. It should be obvious that there must be less emphasis on the possession of academic degrees in a new center than may be appropriate five years after its establishment. Centers attached to universities encounter more problems about academic qualifications than do independent centers. In any center, competence — not the holding of some irrelevant degree — is the primary requisite. Knowledge, skill, experience, aptitude for teaching, and growth potential are the criteria of competence. Achievement of the highest normal level of professional education in the field for which the staff member is being recruited should be fully adequate in any center attached to a university. Thus, traditional academic criteria may need modification.

It is not realistic to require a doctorate, for example, if universities have not provided education at the doctoral level for the field in which the staff member is to function.

d. Interim staff. Assistance from bilateral and multilateral technical cooperation agencies frequently includes the assignment of foreign instructors pending the development of permanent staff. The country's nationals returning from training abroad can work under the guidance of such interim staff members to obtain experience in course preparation, teaching, and research.

e. Use of government officials as instructors. Most centers make considerable use of government administrators or officials as part-time instructors. They report that, on the whole, these instructors make a very valuable contribution, although care must be taken to employ only the persons who have aptitude for teaching. Career administrators tend to rely on description, incidents, and anecdotes, rather than to teach in conceptual terms, and they tend to lecture, rather than employ a variety of teaching methods. A center therefore should include its part-time instructors in staff meetings conducted to broaden teaching capabilities.

4. Scheduling of Courses to Comprise a Program

The courses in a curriculum must be organized into a program of study for the student. This requires a number of administrative decisions.

a. Academic calendar. The form and content of most academic calendars are the result of historical accident. In a colonial situation, professors from the metropole carried their traditional calendar to the dependency, often modified to provide the colonial educator long periods of vacation in his home country. In some countries the long vacation enabled students to help parents with farm work during planting and harvesting seasons. The result is that most academic calendars are irrelevant to modern conditions and needs. Much experimentation is recommended to achieve maximum utilization of the year for academic pursuits. If a long vacation is unavoidable, students may be assigned to internships or other employment, both to give them experience and to enable them to earn funds to support their education. In some countries, the academic calendars may be as low as twenty-three weeks in a year. This period of less than a half-year is far too short to utilize a student's time and energy efficiently, and it provides insufficient work for instructors. It is a waste of manpower and facilities, and no country, no matter how affluent, can afford it.

b. Spreading of courses among terms. Another practice transplanted by colonial educators to the developing countries is the notion about how many terms a single course should cover, how many class sessions per week, the length of class periods, the size of classes, the relation of tutorials to formal instruction, and the timing of examinations. No guidelines can be given that are universally applicable, except the advice that much experimentation and innovation are needed.

c. Number of terms. Whether the academic year should be divided into two, three, or four terms depends on circumstances. A schedule of more than three terms presents considerable administrative work and frequent interruptions in teaching. Three terms can be so scheduled that most of the year is utilized. An academic year of two terms usually covers no more than eight or nine months. A three-term calendar is probably preferable, particularly if long vacations can be reduced.

d. Length of courses. Whether a course should be taught within one term or spread over two or three depends on the course, its place in the curriculum, and the lessons of experience. To be rejected is the notion that all courses must cover a full academic year. In a professional curriculum, more subjects will be required than a standard year-long course requirement would permit. Moreover, one term may be as much time as can be afforded for some subjects.

e. Simultaneously or sequentially. If a center is offering a very specific program of study in which a group of students are required to take the same course work, it may be advantageous to teach one subject at a time, rather than have the students enroll in several courses. Mastery of knowledge may be accelerated by concentration on one subject in a sequential process. The time devoted to each subject may vary considerably, and it may be progressively longer or shorter as the class moves from basics to more advanced work. However, if students are to have the advantage of options or electives, and especially if a varied curriculum is offered permitting students to specialize, it is necessary to offer courses in a manner that permits the student to make selections. In such a program, some of the scheduled courses will be required, some may be recommended, and some can be purely optional. Experience points to a more effective learning experience if the student is limited to three or four courses during a term instead of five or six.

f. Credits and degrees. The earning of a degree or diploma entails the successful completion of a specified program of study. If a student's performance in any segment of the program is at the failure level or at best unsatisfactory, the center must establish the standards and procedures for (1) his dismissal, (2) requiring him to repeat the unsatisfactory portions, or (3) other appropriate action. Students with limited qualifications at time of entry may be required to undertake additional training. On the other hand, applicants for admission already possessing qualifying academic or pertinent work experience may be admitted to "advanced standing," thus reducing the amount of academic work required. In addition to the students passing the specified courses, or achieving the minimum number of credits or residency requirements, a minimum grade average for the total program also may be established. A comprehensive examination or clinical project may be used as an evaluative technique at the end of the program.

5. Conducting the Courses

While the instructor in a course must have considerable discretion in determining the precise coverage, methods of teaching, and work requirements, there are certain requisites to be observed for all courses.

a. The syllabus. A syllabus should be prepared and given each student in a course to inform him of the purpose, scope, methods, and requirements of the course. Appendix D contains an example of a syllabus for an advanced postgraduate course.

b. Text materials. The instructor may assign one or two basic textbooks and provide a bibliography of other documents and readings required or recommended to the students. However, much useful material is not contained in books, but is found in government reports, surveys, monographs, and articles. Such material and special analyses or summaries prepared by the instructor can be reproduced and distributed to students as handouts.

c. Class outlines. The conduct of courses, especially those of an advanced level, are greatly advantaged by the preparation of class outlines or guides to focus the students' attention on major issues and questions, and to provide a means for assigning readings, preparation of papers, special projects, oral reports, etc. Appendix E contains an illustration of a class discussion guide.

d. Instructor's guide. A well-prepared instructor plans in advance precisely how he intends to conduct his class during any instructional period. More advanced classes require the most carefully planned schedules and procedures. This ensures that time is allotted for each issue or topic, and that time is divided effectively among theoretical discussion, problem situations, oral reports, review of written projects, and other uses of time. In addition to determining what simulations, cases, illustrations, and assigned tasks are to be used, preparation of an instructor's guide encourages planning for the use of charts, films, slides, blackboard, and other visual aids as described in Chapter III. After the class, the instructor can note on the guide how he would conduct it the next time. In this way an excellent body of teaching methods and materials is developed.

6. Student Processing and Services

Paralleling the formulation of plans and procedures for instruction, a center must create the organization and procedures for recruitment, admission, registration, advisement, servicing, and placement of students.

a. Staff assignments. Responsibilities for some of these student service activities may be divided among different persons, but all the activities should be conducted under the supervision of an assistant director, secretary for administration, dean of students, or director of student services, as local conditions warrant. The basic element of receiving and processing applications and handling registration must be vested in a single officer who works in close consultation with academic staff.

b. Admission requirements. Prospective students, agencies nominating students, and the center's staff responsible for processing applications must have a clear picture of the kind of students wanted, educational prerequisites, and other desired qualities. The definition of requirements should be sufficiently flexible to permit admission, perhaps on a provisional basis, of unusually qualified persons who may lack specific educational credentials. Special tests or written projects may be used.

c. Diploma or certificate program. If the quantity of well-qualified secondary school graduates is limited, applicants without full scholastic credentials may be admitted into a diploma or certificate program covering a portion of the years of study required for a degree. If a student admitted to diploma study demonstrates that he has the capacity to do degree work, he can be transferred into the degree program, but if he is marginal, he can be graduated at the diploma or certificate level.

d. Concessional year. Another device to compensate for a shortage of applicants with full educational prerequisites is to admit them to a preliminary or preparatory year to remove deficiencies in communicative arts, mathematics, social studies, or other basic subjects.

e. Recruitment policy. The number and quality of applicants or nominations for an academic program depend on resourceful and persistent recruitment. Centers have found that there may be far more qualified persons available than shown by statistics of secondary school graduates or first degree holders for master's programs. Moreover, centers must overcome the lack of knowledge or conviction among secondary school teachers, university professors, and government officials about the value of study in public administration fields. Consequently, extensive efforts are needed to explain the characteristics, value, and opportunities of enrollment in the center's programs. This explanation is necessary irrespective of whether the potential students are recruited from secondary schools, universities, or from government service. Because of its distinctive characteristics, a center must operate its own program to recruit students into academic fields applicable to their interests and qualifications, as well as to meet the priorities established for the several categories of manpower.

f. Recruitment measures. Among the steps that can be utilized are the following:

(1) Wide dissemination of the center's bulletin or other announcements of programs.

(2) Dispatch of letters, articles, and reports to persons on whom the center relies for the nomination of new students and for guidance in program development.

(3) Meetings to explain the center's educational work to national, regional, and local officials, and to other interested groups.

(4) Visits to schools and colleges to talk with teachers and prospective students.

(5) Preparation of form letters and materials for replies to inquirers and applicants, including formal application blanks for admission.

(6) Scheduled visits to the center of prospective applicants.

(7) Continuing contacts with appropriate government officials to find exceptionally promising prospective students in the public service.

(8) Scholarships, fellowships, and other forms of student aid to assist students who lack financial resources or sponsorship.

g. Admission policies. The aim of admissions is to enroll (1) high quality pre-service applicants who give promise of successfully fulfilling government requirements, (2) high quality in-service nominees who have good potential for advancement in the service, or (3) a combination of both.

(1) Candidates nominated by governments from the public service should be scrutinized thoroughly, although criteria other than educational achievement have special importance.

(2) As indicated, there are advantages of diversity in academic background and experience of students.

(3) Most governments are committed to providing equal opportunity for women, so they need to be suitably represented.

(4) Some countries require special measures to secure a balanced distribution of students among geographical areas; religious or ethnic groups, and economic levels. To be avoided is selection from a narrow privileged sector of society.

h. Selection procedures. A major objective in admissions procedure is to develop valid standards and means of appraising qualifications. In addition to the foregoing factors, it should be borne in mind that the raw grade reported in transcripts has been found to be an insufficient, and, at times, unreliable criterion.

A system of admissions conducted by an admissions officer and committee of instructors contains the following elements:

(1) Application. Submission of an application by the prospective student using a form that requires full details of background. Applications often provide for a statement on why the applicant wishes to enroll, on his interests or career objectives, and on other matters providing insights into him as a person.

(2) Transcripts. Review of transcripts showing course work and grades of the applicant in his previous educational endeavors, notably any evidence of improved performance during later terms.

(3) References. Collection and evaluation of reference reports from reliable persons who know the candidate. Reference checks made in person or by telephone are more reliable than those in writing. The aim should be to find out limitations and deficiencies, not only favorable qualities.

(4) Tests. The use of standardized tests to evaluate the candidate's verbal ability, comprehension, and his ability to use concepts and quantitative methods. (Such tests are available from educational and research agencies.)

(5) Interview. Applicants should be interviewed by the admissions officer or faculty members visiting schools or government agencies, or in visits by applicants to the center. Some centers invite a group of screened candidates to participate in a two- or three-day session of testing and evaluation, to enable both the applicant and the center to determine whether the applicant's enrollment at the center would be mutually desirable.

(6) Notification. Each successful applicant should be notified promptly and provided with full information on what he is to do. Some attrition is inevitable because unforeseen circumstances will prevent some admitted persons from enrolling. Thus the admission of more persons than actually desired is necessary to ensure full enrollment. By providing newly-admitted students with a basic reading list, they can become better equipped for formal study.

i. Registration. The adoption of a system of formal records and procedures for processing students is essential. This system includes a file folder containing the significant documents and a full record of the actions taken on each student, card files that record his enrollment in courses, his course grades, and other basic information about him. A student's file will include a schedule he develops with his advisor showing his proposed total program of study and the specific courses to be taken each term.

7. Academic Progress

Students require continuous assistance of various kinds.

a. Advisement. Supplementing the assistance a student receives from a registrar or admissions officer, continuing guidance should be supplied each student by an academic advisor on his course of study and academic progress. The student plans his course schedule in consultation with the advisor, meeting with him on a scheduled basis to review problems, secure advice, and especially to find means for overcoming academic weaknesses.

b. Personal counseling. Poor academic progress is often the result of personal worries and the problem of adapting to a new environment. These problems include matters of housing, finances, illness, personal maladjustment, friction among students, lack of acceptance by other students, tension over academic progress, and problems of participation in student activities and organizations. Counseling on such matters by a student counselor, dean of students, or master of halls is thus an important feature of any academic program.

c. Grading. Grades normally are given to each student for each course, with the student informed of the grade received, thus providing him with his instructor's evaluation of the quality of his academic performance. Grades should be based on all relevant evidence of quality of performance, including examinations during or at the end of a course, project or research reports, term papers, and oral reports. A comprehensive examination and thesis may be required at the end of the entire program. External examiners are sometimes used to review course examinations, final comprehensives and theses as a means of ensuring high standards. Course grades require formal posting in the records of the center. If the center is university-related, they are forwarded to the central registrar for inclusion in the university's official records.

d. Academic standards. Numerous problems arise in academic programs regarding student performance. These problems include a student's failure to maintain an adequate academic grade average, issues of cheating or plagiarism in performance of assignments, absenteeism, and deficiencies attributable to instructors. An academic standards committee consisting of senior faculty members is useful in the solution of these problems.

e. International standards. Each center should develop the standards best fitted to its own conditions. In some former colonies, the subject matter and examinations in public administration are not appropriate because they are based on the subject matter and examinations designed for an alien situation. If freed of such tutelage, the public administration programs in new and developing countries may be more developed than in the former metropoles. In the first years of a new academic program, the academic standards may not be high, but they can be expected to rise as both student selection and instruction improve.

f. Award of degrees. Centers have found value in staging ceremonies at which the degrees or diplomas are awarded. If the center is part of a university, this event consists of not only full participation in the university ceremony, but it may be supplemented by a special dinner or reception for the center's graduating students.

8. Career Development

During the period the student is engaged in his academic studies, and thereafter as well, a center can be of great help to him in his professional development. Contact with officials and visiting scholars can be facilitated both through a student union and an alumni association.

a. Field trips. Field visits, inspections of development projects, and special meetings in local, regional, and national capitals help acquaint students with the real world of public service and of application of theory to practical situations.

b. Distinguished visitors. An alert student union and faculty of a center have many opportunities for arranging special lectures and discussions through invitations to leading officials and to visitors from abroad.

c. Placement. Other student counseling and advisement functions include (1) arranging for research or thesis projects in government agencies; (2) finding of temporary positions or internships during long vacations and referral of students to them; and (3) helping to find the best permanent employment for the center's graduates. Some centers provide guidance to the student in the preparation of a biographical statement or letters of application, in the procedure for securing letters of reference, and in the preparation for an employment interview.

Students on study leave from permanent positions normally do not need this assistance, in contrast to graduates not previously employed. However, a center's placement office can be of help both to government and its graduates by keeping abreast of their progress and alert to the referral of persons ready for more advanced assignments.

d. Alumni association. Every center should maintain contact with its graduates in order to send them information on events at the center, to enlist their help in recruiting and evaluating students, and to inform them on new developments in their field as a part of a continuing education process. Some centers create formal organizations of their graduates, with periodic meetings at convenient locations. These alumni groups often form the nucleus of a professional society in public administration and a channel for participation in the activities of the Society for International Development and the IIAS.

9. Evaluation

As proposed in Chapter II, the results of academic programs, the performance of instructors, and the achievement of students should be periodically evaluated.

a. Curriculum review. From time to time, the instructors at the center should review the curriculum developments at other centers and consult with visitors experienced in curriculum matters elsewhere. Formal critical assessment and recommendations for change may be a part of this process of updating and improving the curriculum.

b. Course evaluation. Academic officers always should be alert in regard to any evidence of ineffective or poor instruction. A review of the syllabi, class assignments, and instructional methods may provide clues. Although evaluations by students have limitations in that they may judge courses only as interesting or of practical value, if appropriately designed they can be of great help. Appendix G illustrates a type of schedule that has proved to be effective. All evaluations should be anonymous.

c. Of student performance. Evaluations of student academic performance through course grades given, year-end or comprehensive examinations, and theses should be supplemented with periodic assessment by their advisors and examining committees. The academic advisor should file for each student a formal statement of evaluation that can be used to inform (1) his superiors if he is on study leave or (2) his prospective employers to whom he may be applying for work.

Chapter V. ADMINISTRATION OF NON-DEGREE TRAINING

Purpose. This chapter considers the special tasks of a center in the conduct of non-degree training courses, seminars, institutes, and conferences. These activities include full-time and part-time courses, workshops with much practical content, special or periodic conferences, syndicate projects, and other training endeavors sometimes identified as "institutes." Most of them are held on an ad hoc or irregular basis, but some are repeated regularly. This in-service non-degree executive and professional training work may be designated as a staff college.

1. Training Projects and Methods

a. Alternate choices. Numerous alternatives are available to a center in determining what kind of training project will meet best a specific need. For example:

(1) A special course offered after work hours, apart from the normal academic curriculum, to serve government employees.

(2) A full-time certificate or possibly a diploma course of a few months to two years duration to provide a broad background in public administration and/or allied fields. Such a course has many characteristics similar to those of a degree program.

(3) Assignment of a member of the center's instructional staff, on a temporary loan basis, to an agency to assist in its training program or to supply a lecturer at a conference sponsored by it. This arrangement may be reciprocated by the assignment of agency personnel to assist in instruction at the center.

(4) A short full-time course, with duration from a week to two or three months, to provide intensive management preparation for a limited area of administration, or for a specialized group of government or business employees.

(5) Technique or problem-oriented workshops of several days to a few weeks duration to develop very specific competences or skills in some aspect of administration, program management, or procedure.

(6) Alternatively, the achievement of training objectives on a part-time basis through conducting class sessions one, two, or three afternoons or evenings per week, or one full day each week.

(7) Senior level seminars for top administrative officials, legislators, judicial officers, enterprise managers, education administrators, public works engineers, or other homogeneous groups to update them on new concepts of administration, administrative requisites for economic and social development, strategy of administrative improvement and reform, legislative-judicial-administrative relationships, or other important subjects.

(8) Training conferences of a half-day or more in length for groups of employees to orient them on new ideas, approaches, or methods and to stimulate their application.

(9) Professional conferences to provide a forum for persons with common professional interests, such as held by administrative officers, engineers, community development specialists, agricultural extension agents, business managers, finance officers, and clerks of courts, enabling them to exchange experiences, secure new concepts, learn of significant achievements with new methods, and to promote higher standards of professional conduct.

b. Choice of instructional methods. The most effective method of instruction for a specific course varies according to the kind of training project, its precise purpose, and its clientele. Chapter III describes some of the principal methods of instruction.

(1) The methods utilized in non-degree training should stress applied aspects—how to relate theory, processes, and techniques to practical situations.

(2) The course emphasis should be on advanced preparation for administrative responsibility and action.

(3) Unless the purpose of the course or seminar is to teach only techniques or skills, most of the instruction should be problem-oriented. The problems might relate to policies, substantive program issues, organization, management, or use of new technologies.

(4) This orientation indicates that the instructor should place heavy reliance on problems suggested by the participants, usually those arising in their own agencies, as well as on specially developed simulations, cases, problem descriptions, etc.

(5) Instructional materials must be relevant to the environmental situation and preferably also to the participants' organizations.

(6) Participative instructional methods are usually essential. To be avoided are lengthy lectures, talking at or down to the participants, generalized discussion, elaboration of descriptive materials, and student memorizing of information.

(7) Thus, the use of simulated problems, role-playing, gaming, in-basket exercises, case study, critical incident analysis, syndicate, and other techniques for analyzing and developing solutions to real problems should be the principal methods utilized. But all of these tools and techniques should be carefully selected, skillfully used, and adapted to the course and clientele.

(8) Projects for high-level officers seldom should include technical skill training, as contrasted with administrative skills, except to demonstrate skill competences needed by their employees. On the other hand, courses for employees at lower levels and in technical fields often will stress skill development. Such latter courses are not usually an appropriate function for a public administration center.

2. Criteria for Training Projects

a. Relation to personnel requirements. If the center has been working closely with government on manpower planning for the various categories of public service and enterprise personnel and on priorities for in-service training, there should be at least general agreement on the character and extent of training projects needed. The center's resources and capabilities are generally limiting factors.

b. Surveys of training needs. If a training project is to be successful, the agencies from which the participants are drawn must attach a high value to it, and they must see in it an opportunity to advance their own organization objectives. It is not enough that the agency be conscious of administrative shortcomings and the inadequacies of its employees. Training is not a panacea for poor administration. Some employees, moreover, do not possess enough competence or motivation to warrant much further training. Thus every agency needs a program of administrative improvement; effective recruitment, development and removal of inadequate employees; and a training strategy to further both efforts. This requires a comprehensive survey of training needs. Otherwise, an agency will be only guessing about action to be taken and priorities to be established. A center often can help in planning and conducting such surveys.

c. Responding to ad hoc requests. Because few government agencies have developed well thought out training plans or have much insight about the role of training, a center usually will be in the position of responding to ad hoc requests or initiating them. Agency officials may discover that some element of its operations is floundering. The problem may be ineffective execution of development projects, failure to have material and equipment available when needed, inadequate budgetary procedures, poor management in public enterprises, or some other common difficulty. Similarly, an agency under new leadership may decide to improve its administration, and thus realize that further training for its staff is essential. Or an association of municipalities may conclude that certain administrative staffs of municipal departments should be given intensive courses in program planning and implementation.

d. Criteria. After a center has demonstrated its ability successfully to conduct training projects, it may be requested to provide considerable training not projected in its work program.

(1) For example, a center must determine what kind of training would best fulfill an identified need, whether it has the capabilities to undertake the task, whether it can be done without serious interference with scheduled projects, and how the anticipated results might compare with those of alternative undertakings.

(2) In some situations, centers must exercise great initiative to interest government in training and to secure support for suggested projects. Alert training officers will have intimate contact with government agencies and will foster the projects showing special promise.

(3) The potential contribution of the proposal to improving public and enterprise services of the country and to accelerating its economic and social development is an important factor.

(4) It is especially desirable to work with an agency that is both progressive and ready to make a major thrust for improving government administration.

(5) Also of importance is the question of how the proposal relates to the center's total program, capabilities, and financial resources.

3. Project Prospectus

Essential for each training project is a statement or prospectus that describes in clear and specific terms its purpose, scope, method, conditions for admission, arrangements, obligations, and other salient facts. The prospectus should be attractively prepared.

a. Use in securing agreement. The prospectus is indispensable in creating understanding by government, participants, and the center's staff regarding objectives and the obligations of the parties involved. It provides a basis for approval of the project by any final authority.

b. Use in recruitment. Reproduction of this prospectus, or a popular version of it, provides a brochure for distribution among the officials responsible for selecting the training participants and for distribution also among prospective participants. If the government accepts full responsibility for nominating the participants, the center's recruitment task is greatly reduced. If the center must publicize the course and enlist applications directly from participants, the prospectus may require wide distribution.

c. Clarity on expectations. Many training efforts arouse criticisms because of lack of clarity regarding course content, their potential value to participants, or regarding their relationship to on-the-job performance in government. The prospectus should avoid vague generalities, such as "improving administrative ability."

(1) For example, a three-day seminar for division heads might have as its objective, "appreciation of the programming and budgeting process to gain better understanding of its potential use in planning and finance, and in control of operations." Similarly, a workshop for budget officers might concentrate on "requirements of a programming-budget system, the preparation of a program budget, method of installation, and the improvement of budget operations."

(2) The prospectus should clearly identify the level of the subject matter to permit the selection of participants with comparable competences and to minimize anxieties about ability to succeed in the course.

(3) The prospectus also should state clearly the time, place, and duration of the course; who is eligible; how to file an application for admission; and details on costs.

4. Selection of Participants

Sustained effort and resourcefulness to enroll a homogeneous group of participants will contribute greatly to the success of a training project.

a. Orienting the sponsors. Ideally, training should start with political and top administrative officials (1) to provide them with a clear comprehension of its value and of what it can and cannot accomplish for their employees, and (2) to reassure such employees that the training will not overwhelm them, reflect on their competence, or risk their future status. However, because training at top levels may not be initially feasible, other means usually will be required to create both understanding and conviction about training, such as:

(1) By identifying training as an instrument for achieving development commitments, program objectives, and project execution through administrative improvement. Political officials thus are enabled to recognize the importance of training to their commitments.

(2) By adjusting the time of training to minimize interference with official duties or absence from post. This kind of adjustment may foster support from top officials for the assignment of senior and middle-level officials who otherwise would or could not be released for training.

(3) By informing top officials of successful training programs in other countries viewed by them as prestigious.

(4) If the center can demonstrate how the absence of modern administrative practices hampers the attainment of objectives, political and administrative officials may realize that their staffs do not possess the necessary knowledge and skills, and that training is required. Sometimes a center will have to convince such officials that a proposed project is different from past attempts in training that failed because of deficiencies in planning, instruction, relevance, or quality of participants.

(5) To be avoided is the assignment, as participants, of persons identified as basically incompetent or superfluous, who therefore can be most easily spared.

(6) Nominees for training must be reassured that their selection is the result of their superior qualifications, indispensability, and future potential. Only their supervisors and agency heads can give them this assurance and make selection for training an act of good faith and high prestige.

b. Recognition in career advancement. Although promotion of staff members or their increased remuneration should not follow in every instance, the personnel system should recognize successful completion of major training undertakings as being important to career advancement. Employees should know that successful completion of training is a valuable factor in an agency's distribution of future assignments.

c. Professionalizing the service. The more that administrative staff members are trained and imbued with professional ideals, the greater is their influence in upgrading entire departments and agencies. Persons in middle-level positions will serve as stimuli for improving practice at the lower levels—a quality that will mark some of them for promotion. Senior seminars, conferences, and other contacts of center staff members with top government officials will help to start the process of professionalization moving from top downward. This effort is long-range, in which the center can play a significant role.

d. Nomination of participants. Even with a sincere commitment by government, the center usually must devote much time and effort to arranging for the nomination of participants. In addition to the wide circulation of the prospectus, arrangements should be made for:

(1) Each organization nominating participants to have a liaison officer or committee for proposing nominees.

(2) Issuance of directives by the chief executive, other central officer, or by agency heads to directors of departments, bureaus, divisions, or other units stating quotas and conditions for making nominations.

(3) Appointment of a liaison officer by the center to consult with the persons nominating participants to ensure that the latter meet minimum qualification standards and are relatively equal in official responsibilities, maturity, knowledge, and skills.

e. Approval by center. The degree of a center's discretion regarding admissibility of nominees for training will vary according to the situation. For example:

(1) In a seminar for officers holding similar positions, anyone in such a position is automatically eligible as a participant.

(2) At the other extreme, if the center is responsible for recruiting participants by canvassing interest among many prospects, it will have full responsibility for screening and for inducing the appropriate officials to grant the necessary permission for the selectees to undertake the training.

f. Number of participants. The minimum and maximum quotas of participants per class also require joint agreement between the participants' sponsors and the center. The number of manageable participants varies according to the purpose and level of the project and to the teaching methods employed. Fifteen to twenty-five enrollees is the feasible, effective range; a class of twenty-five, at the most, is the maximum that can be managed in a training project that emphasizes participative methodologies. In a class of senior officials or in any advanced project that entails a high degree of participation, the figure ordinarily should not exceed fifteen. If the program is to be primarily of the information-giving type using primarily the lecture method, fifty or more persons might be enrolled in a single course.

5. Project Organization

a. Project director. Each training project requires a director, preferably a person who has participated in planning the project from its outset. Often, however, the director cannot be assigned, or recruited, until after the proposal is authorized. His duties normally include:

(1) Development of the work plan, the syllabus, and teaching materials.

(2) Mobilization and training of instructors

(3) Approval of and preparatory contact with participants.

(4) Managing the enterprise

In these matters, he usually will operate under the general supervision of the center's training chief as described in Chapter X.

b. Special moderator. Sometimes it may be desirable to utilize a person especially competent in the subject matter of the project to plan and coordinate the instructional program; or a person skilled in moderating training courses or conferences may be invited to preside.

c. Project officer or assistant. Many detailed arrangements are entailed in any training project on which the director needs full-time help from a project officer or project assistant. The help of an audiovisual and/or layout artist is often important also. Such persons normally will be drawn from the staff resources of the center's training division. Of course, the director also must receive adequate and timely clerical support.

6. Conduct of the Project

The following are some of the major tasks in the administration of training projects.

a. Work plan. A detailed work plan or manual of operations should describe the project's preparatory steps, procedures, arrangements, assignments, and other tasks. It serves as the primary guide for everyone having a role in the project.

b. Syllabus. The syllabus describes the curriculum, that is, the allocation of subjects under each main subdivision of the project. It shows the distribution of subjects and instructors, often with time phasing. Appendix G is an example. Within each subject or topic, the assigned instructor prepares his subsyllabus or instructional plan, indicating the methods and materials to be utilized. Chapter III offers guidelines on the preparation of such material.

c. Material for participants. Material or handouts to be given participants prior to or at the beginning of the project can be assembled in some form of loose-leaf binder, with suitable indices and tabs. Illustrative of the contents are:

(1) Descriptive information about the project

(2) Syllabus, daily schedules, bibliography, assignments, instructions, cases, and projects.

(3) Biographical information about each instructor

(4) Information about the center, such as living arrangements, handling of mail, telephone calls, absences, recreational resources, map of the area, and library facilities.

(5) Handouts of instructional materials, readings, reprints, and other reference documents.

(6) Subsyllabi, daily discussion guides, and specialized instructional materials distributed after the course begins, and which can be inserted into the loose-leaf binder when received.

d. Instruction. The following suggestions regarding instruction normally represent best practice:

(1) In a very short or part-time training project, a project director or chief instructor may give most of the instruction.

(2) In projects of longer duration or greater diversity of subjects, numerous instructors drawn both from the center's staff and from outside will need to be utilized. The more specialized the curriculum, the greater the use of experts in the subject matter.

(3) Instructors should be selected sufficiently in advance of the project's start to enable them to become thoroughly familiar with the entire curriculum, to examine the background of the participants, and to prepare their subsyllabi and handout materials.

(4) Each instructor should be encouraged and assisted, if necessary, to use audiovisual materials and other teaching aids such as films, slides, charts, transparencies for an overhead projector, maps, flannelboard materials, tape recorders, and record players. He will need to search out films relevant to his course available through the center or otherwise.

(5) In senior seminars, participants bring a wealth of experience and knowledge, which an alert instructor can draw upon in class discussions. Descriptive statements and case problems prepared by participants and given to instructors can help relate class sessions to the interests of the participants.

(6) As a course proceeds, each new instructor upon entry should be fully informed about the material covered by his predecessors. If the chief instructor cannot be present in class sessions, he should arrange for an alternate to attend and help integrate. A new instructor should review his plans with his predecessors to prevent duplication and to ensure that his material will be fully coordinated with the course as a whole. The chief instructor should schedule class sessions to integrate the various parts of the curriculum. Disjointed presentations in which participants cannot envision how the parts interrelate are to be avoided.

(7) Frequent "change of pace" is needed in sessions that continue for several hours during a day. Varied use of teaching methods, introduction of new problems, assignment to individual or group reports, and use of films or other visual materials helps to maintain interest. A scheduled time for reading handout material and working on individual or group projects may provide the needed change.

(8) Participants need to be continuously alert, involved, and feeling a sense of the project's importance. A good instructor injects spirit into his teaching and promotes such stimulation and interchange that an inquiring attitude is engendered. He must like the students and regard himself as a catalyst to learning, free communication, and goodwill.

e. Punctuality and attendance. A firm policy on attendance and punctuality is wise, a requirement to be stressed in the introductory sessions. Tardiness and absenteeism by some class members break continuity, impair morale, and are disruptive and discourteous. One device to reduce absenteeism is to schedule make-up times.

f. Field visits. In a course of more than a week or two, field visits to pertinent projects, installations, or government agencies may have substantial value. Advance arrangements are needed to ensure that the participants will be instructed in matters of maximum benefit to them, not just given a tour. The method of paying for transportation, food, and lodging must be well planned in advance.

7. Conferences

An effective conference program, requires a director to plan, schedule, and manage it. As indicated in Section 1 of this chapter, conferences serve various purposes and clientele.

a. A training instrument. A conference is a form of training, and many of the requirements for training projects apply to them. The purpose, subject matter, and speakers or instructors must be planned carefully. In all but small seminar-type conferences, the lecture method tends to be excessively utilized. Use of discussion periods, panels, problem-solving clinics, and breaking into subgroups of a syndicate type offers various means for participation by the conferees. Visual aids also have an important role.

b. Conference chairman. An informed and stimulating chairman can establish the right pace of a conference, injecting humor and goodwill at critical moments. The selection of effective session leaders is equally important to success of a conference.

c. Regular conferences. Some kinds of conferences, especially those for professional groups, can be conducted productively on an annual basis. A committee for each type of regular conference, working with the center's conference director, provides an effective means of sharing the burden.

8. Supportive Arrangements

Physical and service arrangements are important in determining the success of a training project:

a. Location. The staging of a course, seminar, or conference in the center's facilities or in adjacent university quarters gives intellectual tone and integrates the participants into the life and purposes of the center. This calls for well furnished reception and meeting rooms. A center with conference quarters, including lodging and dining facilities, is best. The contribution of conference facilities of this magnitude to the country's development warrants government contributions for its support.

b. Lodging. Residential quarters are important to the success of full-time training projects. They are important even for participants who live within commuting distance, for if they continue to live at home, the demands of their offices and families disrupt the program, the study of handouts, work on problem assignments, and use of the library. Evening meetings become far more difficult to schedule, and the advantage of group dining is lost. A possible alternative is to remove the project from the city to more isolated facilities where distractions are minimized.

c. Hospitality. Various steps may be taken to provide a friendly reception and to integrate participants into a cohesive group. An informal gathering of participants and instructors at the beginning of the course aids in achieving this objective. Tea and coffee periods and other opportunities for informal interaction contribute both socially and substantively. A graduation or recognition luncheon or dinner provides a good conclusion to a training project. An important speaker may be the main feature of the occasion, as well as the awarding of certificates. If distance is not an obstacle, the occasion can be utilized to invite and involve the participants' supervisors, relatives, and friends. Newspaper publicity can be given to the event.

d. Meeting room arrangements. Project directors and assistants should be sensitive to the importance of such requirements as:

(1) Good ventilation, light, freedom from distracting noise, comfortable temperatures, and pleasing or relaxing wall colors.

(2) A seating arrangement that facilitates group discussion. Small tables that enable the participants to sit on the perimeter of a rectangle or circle and that can be adjusted easily to the group's size. In small groups, no one should be behind another person. In larger groups, seating arrangements in concentric ovals may be needed.

(3) Chairs should be comfortable with some cushioning—not so soft as to induce sleep and not so hard as to distract attention.

(4) Every training room requires one blackboard covering a large part of a wall and a second blackboard, attached or movable. An easel for visual aids and blank flip sheets (with colored markers), slide and film projectors, and screens are additional standard equipment items.

(5) The project assistant or program officer ensures that all of these arrangements are planned and in good order daily.

9. Linkages and Follow-up

Coordination and follow-up with government agencies and supervisors of participants are essential in the planning stage, during the project, and after it has been evaluated. The following suggestions are pertinent:

a. Since training projects are part of a society's development and manpower planning, a center should maintain liaison with planning offices as well as with central and departmental administrative officials.

b. Besides being consulted in drafting the prospectus and syllabus, government officials should be informed of progress, given an opportunity to participate in events suggested under Section 8, and informed of the project's outcome. Views differ as to whether a written evaluation of each participant's performance should be provided to his supervisor. In any event, the center should have a record on each participant, including evaluations by his instructor.

c. The participants' superiors require separate attention to enlist sympathetic support to the training effort and to encourage participants to apply their new knowledge and skills. This objective may be facilitated by providing supervisors with the syllabus and prospectus before the course begins, and by collectively meeting with the director for consideration of the project, what it should accomplish, and the course content. This type of meeting has training value for the superiors. If a meeting is not feasible, consultations may need to be held with the supervisors individually. A written resume at the conclusion of the project can be transmitted to superiors.

d. Centers have found it useful to consult superiors about six to nine months following the end of a project as part of evaluation of results and to encourage supervisory initiative in achieving high performance by the participants.

e. This follow-up procedure emphasizes the necessity of providing training projects at all levels: senior, middle management, lower supervisory, and for specialized professional services.

10. Evaluations

The project should be evaluated by each participant during, at the end, and several months after completion of his training.

a. Initial evaluation. After the first day or two of a one-week or two-week course, or after the first week of a longer course, an evaluation should be made of participant reactions. In courses using a considerable number of instructors, an evaluation may be made of each subject. An anonymous check sheet indicating the significant elements can be used by each participant to indicate whether the presentations are too high-level, too fast, too slow, too theoretical, too practical, etc. The sheets might indicate whether instructors can be heard, the suitability of physical arrangements, and other important questions.

b. Written work. Written assignments of a problem-solving nature, using simulations, quizzes or reports, and similar assignments give useful evidence of progress. Most training efforts err by not requiring enough written work by participants.

c. Comprehensive evaluation. An anonymous appraisal of the entire project by the participants at its conclusion is standard practice. By using a check-sheet questionnaire, participants are encouraged to give candid views of unfavorable as well as favorable aspects of the course. Space on the questionnaire for additional comment and suggestions for improvement makes the evaluation especially beneficial in preparing and conducting new projects.

d. Report on evaluation. The project director and instructors should prepare a comprehensive report, including the views of the participants as well as their own suggestions on improving the project in the future.

e. Appraisal of presentations. A participant evaluation sheet on each subject and instructor assists the instructors to improve their respective performances. Appendix H is an illustration of an evaluation sheet used for very senior training projects. These evaluations should not be shown to anyone by the director other than to the instructor concerned. Instructors must be told of their shortcomings and improve their methods. This is an important process in developing excellence in teaching.

f. Follow-up appraisal. Within three to nine months after completion of the project, a follow-up review may be made to ascertain its impact. If a checklist questionnaire is used to ascertain what elements of the course were found to be of significant value by the participants after their return to active service, it should be cleared with the superior officials, because some might resent the intrusion or feel threatened by its use. An inquiry could be sent to the supervisors to obtain their views on whether the participants benefitted.

Chapter VI. PLANNING AND CONDUCT OF A RESEARCH PROGRAM

Purpose. An educational center such as a school or institute of public administration engages in research to develop both its programs and its staff, as well as to contribute knowledge of value to the government and people of the country. Research is also essential to make teaching programs appropriate to local conditions and needs. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the kinds and uses of research most appropriate for a center, how a center can best utilize and organize its staff to engage in research, and methods of planning and managing research projects.

1. Kinds of Research

a. Purposes of research. The number of interesting and useful areas of relevant research is virtually endless. The various fields of public service, economic and social development, and urban affairs are replete with opportunities for constructive inquiry. There are also many categories of consumers of research — government agencies, educational institutions, business enterprises, voluntary organizations, international bodies, and professional colleagues and societies. The role of a center in research should be limited and coherent in terms of both subject matter and clientele. A typical center undertakes research for the following reasons:

(1) Development of teaching materials for its instructional program.

(2) Providing information about government operations and conditions needed for analysis and solution of administrative and development problems.

(3) Training of students in research skills and in a disciplined scientific outlook.

(4) Development of knowledge and competences of instructors.

(5) The furtherance of general knowledge about problems of government and administration.

b. Teaching materials. Accurate and up-to-date reference and case materials are essential to teaching in a professional field. These materials may be as ambitious as a book describing the operations of a government or as small as a two-page classroom handout on some administrative practice. Such materials should (1) reflect the specific political, economic, and social context in which public administration is practiced; and (2) show the current state of development of the administrative institutions or processes under study especially as they relate to economic and social progress. Research for the development of teaching materials generally is understood and easily explained to governments. Such work frequently leads to relationships productive for the center's activities in other areas.

c. Service research. Research of an operational or service character includes the development and dissemination of knowledge about the problems, organizations, and practices of government at the several levels and in various sectors of value in planning, policy-making, improvement of administration, and daily operations.

As indicated in Chapter II, the line between service research and advisory services or consultancy is often blurred. Service research covers subjects of general and widespread interest in which the findings will be useful to numerous agencies and individuals. It may be an outgrowth of efforts to develop teaching material, and usually will contribute to satisfy teaching needs. It is not unusual for as much as two years to elapse from the time that a center declares itself ready to undertake research projects until receipt of the first substantial request for such research from government.

d. Development of students. The ability to undertake studies, collect data, and communicate results is an important skill of an administrator. The use of a center's students in interviewing, sifting through primary data, and writing draft reports provides them with good training experience. Knowledge of research methods and ability in objective writing will be of great value to the student in his career.

A short course in research methodology may be provided students.

e. Staff development. A center's staff members having only teaching or internal administrative duties stagnate and become divorced from the real world of the practitioner. Young and other less-experienced staff members also need to broaden their practical knowledge and discipline their thinking about theory and practice. Involvement in research is an important way to do this. Indeed, any competent staff member or administrator must be a perpetual student of his field.

f. Contribution to knowledge. Research that contributes to basic knowledge of theory and practice is essential for growth of a field in its scientific and professional aspects. Unless a center is part of a university and well financed, it seldom will be in a position to conduct much of this kind of research. However, staff members engaged in service research and the development of teaching materials may produce "spin off" papers and articles of great significance to basic knowledge. Such efforts by individual staff members should be encouraged.

2. Selection of Research Projects

A review of studies undertaken by centers shows wide diversity in their selection of subjects.

a. Manuals and yearbooks. Many centers begin their research activities by publishing a manual of government organization and functions. This type of project is a major piece of research that can take most of the time of a senior man and several junior research assistants for a year or more. Its usefulness as a reference and teaching source is universally recognized. The research usually can be undertaken at the initiative of the center. Various compilations and statistical reports may serve a broad public need.

b. Administration of a function or system. Ordinarily centers do not engage in management improvement or organization and methods (O & M) projects as part of their research program. If this kind of study is made, it should be treated as an advisory service or consultancy as described in Chapter VII. However, much value can be derived from general studies or reports on how the government conducts specific activities, such as procurement, the registry and filing system, the communication system, printing, use of automobiles, and other common practices. Such reports are useful in teaching, and frequently they are of direct benefit to government. Studies of this nature sometimes can be used as a supplement to more general data in a yearbook.

c. Analysis of a program or a sector. Centers that train people for specific ministries, departments, or sectors need "clinical" information about the problems and operations of that sector. Studies of the administration of the transport sector, of education, or of urban administration are illustrative. "Development administration" studies may explore economic and social policy and implementation questions related to a program or sector.

d. Manpower and personnel. Centers have a major interest in their country's personnel requirements, personnel practices, training programs, and patterns of management in various agencies. Personnel studies and studies of manpower requirements thus comprise important areas for research.

e. Budget and finance. This is a most fruitful field for research, and one usually appreciated by government. Studies of budgeting, accounting, and taxation, for example, provide background materials for many purposes. Compilations of income and expenditure data may serve many interests.

f. Comparative studies. Centers are in a good position to collect comparative information of practices among ministries and regional or local governments. Comparative studies of practice with other countries can be done collaboratively through the IIAS Group of Schools and Institutes, United Nations, or other international organs.

g. Case studies. The more sophisticated a case study, and the broader its intended use, the more research becomes a major requirement in its development. Case studies usually describe a specific decision process, series of decisions, or administrative actions in a national government, a region, municipality, or in an enterprise. Case studies of this kind are useful as a means of operational improvement as well as in teaching.

3. Sponsorhip of Research

A center's research effort consists of (a) institutional research, that is, research conducted as an organized function of the center, (b) research by individual staff members to fulfill personal professional interests, and (c) research by visiting scholars.

a. Institutional research. If research is a major objective of a center a formal research program should be directed and controlled in terms of institutional objectives. The aggregate of individual research interests of staff members does not constitute a program. An institutional program requires:

(1) A specific allocation of budgetary funds for research. At a minimum the budget should provide for one senior research person, supported by junior research assistants, clerical support, and funds for travel, communications, and supplies. Such resources are essential to continuity in research, to building on past research, and to making a significant contribution, such as production of a government manual or yearbook.

(2) A work program and sustained support by the officers of the center, notably at an early stage in the center's development. The research program will not grow automatically out of a training program or out of miscellaneous individual research efforts. The payoffs from a research program, though often great, are usually long-term.

(3) The designation of a senior person to assume major responsibility is a critical factor in institutional research. The assignment of such responsibility to various people on a part-time basis usually results in low priority being put on institutional research and in an uncoordinated program. A part-time arrangement can supplement a full-time research staff, but it never substitutes for it. A well-designed institutional research program utilizes the efforts of many people from both within and outside the center.

(4) The priority placed by a center on research is reflected in the incentives given for research activity. That is, staff devoting substantial effort to institutional research warrant reduced teaching hours and promotion and salary increases.

b. Individual research. Every instructor has a duty to stay abreast of his substantive fields, to develop teaching material for his classes, and to further his own professional growth.

(1) Unless a center makes the conduct of some research a standard requirement of every instructor, some staff members will relax and avoid it. Research requires self-discipline and stamina. This emphasis on research does not mean that quantity of publications should be the requisite for promotion. Much that is published on this basis is of questionable quality.

(2) A center can give some inducements for individual research if it contributes to the center's objectives, inducements such as clerical assistance and publication of the results. Individual research topics do not always fit into the center's scale of priorities because individual efforts are often directed to an academic or international body of colleagues rather than to the immediate needs of government and to the teaching program.

(3) Staff members recruited from abroad may present a problem unless there is clear understanding in regard to their research privileges. They often believe they have a personal right to any data they have collected, including the right to take it with them when they leave the country. Not only is it important that the center benefits from the research, but such individuals must also be discrete in its use.

(4) Political sensitivity of a subject or lack of tact or judgment by the researcher may require a center to restrict individual research efforts.

(5) New and relatively young staff members sometimes wish to study topics that are overly "academic", political, or based on preconceived ideas not especially relevant to the work of the center. Sensitive counseling by senior members is called for in this case, in which a ready list of useful researchable projects may be helpful. The involvement of the junior staff members in team research projects is another valuable means of helping them to develop mature judgment in their own research objectives.

c. Visiting scholars. Outside scholars who wish to be associated with the center can be a useful adjunct to its own research program, but they also present problems.

(1) The visiting scholar usually has a definite project, such as a dissertation or a comparative or cross-cultural study. He wishes to be associated with the center in order to utilize its goodwill and contacts for the benefit of his own individual study. The center thus needs to determine if the visitor's purposes and methods are compatible with its interests.

(2) If the work is within the center's research objectives, it may be appropriate to grant the scholar a formal affiliate status and supply him with office space or even clerical or data processing assistance. Where affiliate status is granted, arrangements should be made in advance to ensure that the product of the study, and, in some cases, copies of the raw data, are retained by the center after the scholar departs. Regardless of status, it is desirable that at least a preliminary report of the study of a foreign scholar be filed before his departure.

4. Criteria for Research Projects

Regardless of whether research is conducted on an institutional or individual basis, certain criteria are applicable.

a. Suitability. The test questions regarding any proposed research project are: Does it fulfill the center's research objectives and priorities? What are the implications in terms of funds, time, and available staff interest and abilities? How will the conduct of this project affect the center's key relationships? In other words: Is it appropriate? Is it manageable? Will it help instead of hinder?

b. Feasibility. A center should undertake only the research projects it can reasonably expect to complete successfully. This obvious truth is frequently overlooked in the face of pressure for certain research projects based on excessive enthusiasm of staff members. Of course, all research involves a degree of uncertainty, and any research institution will experience some uncompleted projects or works of questionable value; but if there are many of these, a center gains a reputation for nonperformance and irrelevance.

c. Availability of resources. The funds available limit what can be done and in what depth. Research capacity is limited also by the availability of junior research assistants and by the amount and quality of available clerical support. It is false economy to attempt saving funds at this level, because the net result of such attempts is to use highly-paid professional people for routine tasks. Special funds for limited research sometimes can be obtained for this purpose.

d. Staff and agency interests. The interest of staff members should carry major weight in selecting projects, although not always the deciding weight. It is also wise to select research projects in relationship to the work of other research agencies pursuing associated objectives. The cooperation and occasional assistance from these agencies can be of great help to a center.

e. Avoidance of overlap. Overlapping or duplication of research efforts or responsibilities with other organizations should be avoided, even though the other agencies may not be doing the tasks well.

(1) A center normally would not undertake studies of forms design, job classification, or fiscal procedures if there is an administrative improvement (O & M) office in the government.

(2) It would avoid studies of the kind conducted by an institute of economic and social research, if one exists.

(3) Any statistical project, such as a yearbook, should be considered in relationship to the work of government statistical offices. It is generally desirable to avoid selecting projects that would have to be forced on a reluctant government.

f. Availability of skills. Special skills and experience are necessary for many research projects, skills not always readily available. It is usually unwise to commit a center to undertaking a project requiring special skills unless they are clearly in sight. It may take a year or more to recruit or train a senior researcher in such skills. If this person is a government employee, there is always the possibility that he may be called away prior to project completion for some responsibility with higher immediate priority.

5. Organizing a Formal Research Program

The development of a research program requires wide participation among a center's staff, formalization in a definitive plan, with specific resources allocated to it. Chapter XI shows how it becomes a major element of a center's work program and budget.

a. Commitment of resources. A formal research program is essential in the allocation of a center's limited resources. A formal program establishes priorities and resources over a fixed period, but its development is a continuous process. The process can be facilitated by the preparation and annual revision of a one-year research plan, supplemented by projected research plans for future years and integrated with the center's annual budget.

b. Responsibility for program. A research division within the center's organization is desirable as a means of developing and sustaining a meaningful research effort. A research director heading this division is responsible for developing the formal research program and coordinating the implementation of that program, as well as giving generalized support to the research function throughout the center. His job is to seek out ideas from other members of staff, from government officials, and from other interested and knowledgeable people. He must be aware of and sensitive to the research interests of all members of the staff.

c. Initiation of program. A center's research program consists of four types of activity:

(1) Institutional research projects financed out of the center's budget.

(2) Institutional projects financed by special allocations from government, business, foundations, or external assistance agencies.

(3) Individual research which a center's members conduct as an incidental element of their duties.

(4) Individual research subsidized from some source which enables payment of part or all of a staff member's salary with a lightening of his regular work load.

In formulation of a work plan, consideration is given to the identification of subjects or problems in which research will prove valuable, to the financial resources that may be available, and to staff interests.

d. Adoption of program. In formulating and finalizing the research program, the center's research officer will find especially advantageous a research coordinating committee as described below. The center's director must make the final decisions in light of other program priorities and success in securing budget requirements. Only if appropriations or special fund availabilities are known, is it possible to finalize the program.

e. Assistance by research officer. After a formal program has been approved, the research officer seeks support for that program, including the commitment of the center's staff, assent and help from government and other agencies, and, in some instances, additional financial support through proposals to foundations and aid agencies.

(1) In this effort, the research officer exercises general supervision over the research program, having general administrative responsibility for all institutional research projects. In some cases, he serves as project director.

(2) The research officer's involvement with individual research projects is that of support. He makes himself available to assist in developing appropriate methodology, in questionnaire design and distribution, in devising interview techniques, in the analysis of data, and in the writing and publication of results.

(3) The research officer's support of the individual research projects normally is given only on request and at his discretion. In other words, the research officer should not program individual research other than his own, but he can give advice and assistance. His direct programming and supervisory skills have greater relevance in larger team research projects of an institutional research character.

f. Use of research committee. A research coordinating committee composed of a representative cross-section of a center's staff may provide collective judgment and support that ensures a substantial institutional research program while also stimulating individual efforts. Many persons require goading by their peers to overcome indolence or lesser preoccupations. A good committee meeting frequently can:

(1) Legitimize a center's research program and provide it with purpose and commitment. Included is the development of research objectives and establishment of priorities which become the guideposts by which the committee ensures relevance and appropriateness of research activities.

(2) Correlate the research recommendations of the research officer with these priorities and the members' collective judgment.

(3) Evaluate projects by such questions as "How critical is the need? What staff resources are available? What are the interests and capabilities of the staff members? What opportunities are there for effective research?"

(4) Recommend projects for inclusion in the formal research program which meet its criteria and thus help ensure financial and other essential support.

(5) Review and recommend the dispostion of proposals for award of funds available for disbursement under allocations or grants for this purpose or for student summer internship or research assignments.

(6) Provide staff members with advice on the soundness of methodology and other critical issues.

g. Project committees. On major institutional research projects, it may be found useful for the center's director to designate an ad hoc project committee to advise and assist. Such committees are usually composed of two or three persons involved in the project plus one or two others from government or universities.

6. Project Planning and Management

Research projects originate in various ways, deal with diverse subjects, and entail different fact-gathering and analytical methods. Some proposals will have been planned in considerable detail when presented by the research officer to the research coordinating committee, while others may be favorably recommended by that committee without much preparatory work. Except for these factors, the process of planning and management of projects is essentially the same.

a. The project work plan. In all cases the problem to be researched must be defined, resources programmed, schedules worked out, responsibilities assigned, funds committed, targets established, controls designed, and clearances obtained. Each project begins with a reconnaissance in which the problem is delineated, and background materials are collected from readily available resources. Following the reconnaissance, a plan of action can be drafted. The plan of action, developed before any research project actually is begun, should include the following elements:

(1) A description of the purposes of the study

(2) A delineation of the problem, issues, and phases of the study.

(3) An outline of the procedures to be employed, e.g. the data or information to be sought, how collected, the analytical methods to be utilized, i.e. the research design.

(4) An approximate time schedule, giving target dates for each major phase of the project. Flow charting by the Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT) may be especially useful in planning the steps.

(5) Assignment of responsibilities; identifying the principal researcher and the chief liaison person on the government side.

(6) A list of all persons on the project, the duties of each, the clerical work needed, and data processing requirements.

(7) An assessment of outside assistance required, if any, and the need for coordination with outside bodies.

(8) Plans for publication, including clearances required.

(9) The procedures being followed to ensure that the study is fully legitimized. It usually is essential that appropriate government officials know of and approve a study affecting their areas before it is begun. A letter from a responsible official is most useful to ensure legitimacy and to provide identification for the project staff members.

b. Conduct and control of the project. A system of reporting on the progress of a project is recommended despite the fact that researchers usually dislike to write interim reports. If schedules and target dates have been established in advance, follow-up can take the relatively simple form of checking on the completion of defined phases of the project at prescheduled times. A simple desk calendar on which are entered the appropriate notations is a very useful control device for this purpose. With the project plan complete, as evidenced by acceptance of all targets, it is possible to begin the study, such as gathering, compiling, and analyzing the data, drawing conclusions from the analysis, perhaps formulating suggested solutions to problems under study, and finally preparing a report or reports on the findings, conclusions, and proposals, if any.

c. Institutional assistance of individual projects. In the case of individual research activities, the center has an auxiliary rather than a directing role. Assistance can be formalized by requiring persons to submit a project proposal before it can be considered for the research program. This proposal should include, in addition to the items listed above, a full written request for assistance, sufficiently detailed to be operationally useful to the research officer. For example, a staff member might make the following request of the research office, "Two hundred questionnaires (approximately eight pages) to be typed, mimeographed, and mailed by research office by July 1969. Draft questionnaire will be ready by 15 April 1969." Too often a staff member states merely, "clerical support required." A standard form to facilitate the request can be devised by the research office. Practically the only other control available over individual projects is personal persuasion.

d. Dissemination of research results. Research has value only if the results are known and used, but frequently results are in a form not easily communicated. From the moment a research project is planned, thought should be given to how results can be made available to the greatest number of persons who can benefit. Reporting on research under way and completed in the center's newsletter or journal is an obvious first step.

(1) The results of much research are lost because inadequate time is scheduled for producing results in article or monograph form. Too often materials are collected, especially for classroom use, used successfully, but never put in form for dissemination simply because they never become more than personal notes. The extra needed effort may not be great, but it does require additional incentive to prepare the material.

(2) The prospect of publication is frequently an effective incentive. As discussed in Chapter VIII, a center's publications program often can provide an effective vehicle for reaching officials and fellow academics. A number of journals with wide international circulation publish articles of relevance to professional administrators, such as the journal of the Society for International Development, the British Journal of Administration Overseas, the IIAS International Review, and the U.S. Public Administration Review. Major publishing firms increasingly are interested in producing teaching materials.

(3) If problems of political sensitivity make publication of results impossible, a center usually is free to place the results in its library with appropriate controls on access.

(4) Another informal method of making results known is to stage a seminar for staff of the center, other educational and professional groups, and government officials at which those playing a lead role in the project would report their findings and conclusions and lead discussion.

(5) An announced lecture at the center, meetings of a public administration society, or an international conference provide other forums in which to share the results.

(6) Creation of a desire for a new training program, further research, or for a consulting project may be a useful outcome.

e. Storage of data. In addition to disseminating the written reports, the storage of raw data to ensure that important bits of information are not lost constitutes an important part of the project. If possible, completed questionnaires and other pertinent documents should be well identified and kept in protective containers. If the center has an electronic data processing capacity, punch cards and magnetic tape are useful for the storage of certain kinds of data, but a dust-free, air-conditioned storage area is required. Much research can be simplified if there is a simple register listing all of the data available in the center, such as a card file in the research section. Some centers also cooperate with clearing houses of research which keep a record of research projects in all areas of concern to them.

7. Some Cautions

a. Coordination. Regular machinery of consultation between a center and other data-collecting agencies working in the same area can avoid much embarrassment. On a research project of any size, the research director or principal researcher contemplating the study should make informal contacts with officials of other agencies to ensure cooperation and to minimize the possibility of later conflict and unintentional affront.

b. Interviewing. Researchers should avoid imposing on the goodwill of government, and they should remember that government officers are busy men. Anyone interviewing a government official should do his homework first. He should:

(1) Keep the project objectives clearly in mind

(2) Know what is wanted

(3) Write or call ahead for appointment

(4) Be polite

(5) Gather what data is available and leave on schedule.

(6) Not go to officials to get information readily available other places.

(7) Obtain the data first, then go to the officials to confirm and amplify.

(8) Avoid blind fact-gathering. He must remember that information is only a means to an end, that the collection of unnecessary information is wasteful, and that it also results in a complicated problem of analysis.

c. Development of confidence. The center's relationship with government puts limitations on what and how research can be conducted. A center that is functionally part of government must be especially careful about criticisms of government policies. On the other hand, if a research officer hopes to be transferred to the ministry he is studying, his criticism may be unduly restrained. A government-related center may gain access more readily to classified documents than could a more independent center, but even highly independent centers can be expected to develop a close relationship with government and gain access to sensitive data as needed. It is important to guard this privilege carefully, because one betrayal of confidence by one person could mar all future relationships.

d. Restraint in promises. A researcher must avoid making implied commitments that cannot be fulfilled. He speaks for the center, and what he says about training or possible supply of operating personnel may be interpreted as its policy and intent. There is a natural tendency in seeking information to promise the respondent what he wants in return, but if the promises are not fulfilled, much ill will can result.

e. Making notes. Researchers should develop the habit of taking notes of interviews as soon as possible. Because memory is fallible, an interview that is not recorded within a few hours after it is held is not much more than a pleasant (or unpleasant) conversation and its factual validity becomes questionable.

8. Training of Staff in Research

A center may have few staff members who are trained researchers. Basic research techniques such as the interview are deceptive because they seem easy to use, but, in fact, they require quite sophisticated handling. Effectiveness in research requires considerable knowledge about substantive aspects of the fields to be studied as well as methods of data collection and analysis.

a. Training on the job. Training in research methodology should be a mixture of theory and practical work. A neophyte should read some of the excellent materials now available on administrative research. Experience on a meaningful project under the supervision of a senior researcher is one of the best and quickest methods to develop research competency. Staff meetings devoted to specific research problems, such as design of a specific study, questionnaire construction, or data processing may be considered, especially in the context of specific research projects. Visiting researchers can be asked to meet with the staff and comment on methodology as well as content.

b. Formal training. Occasionally, in-service short courses or conferences on research methods might be considered for specific areas of general interest to staff members, such as organization and methods analysis, systems analysis, and computer programming. If members of the staff are sent to an academic institution for further training, especially at the postgraduate level, special attention should be given to the research component of that training. Every center should have at least two or three persons with advanced graduate work in which research is featured both in theory and practice.

c. Further information. Victor Mamphey of Ghanna is preparing a handbook for the IIAS on the conduct of research, with emphasis on the field of development administration.

Chapter VII. THE CONDUCT OF ADVISORY SERVICES

Purpose. This chapter describes the various kinds of advisory or consulting services that a center may render to government agencies, suggests criteria for decisions on what services to render, outlines steps and pitfalls in the conduct of projects, and provides guidelines for the preparation of reports.

1. Various Kinds of Services

The kind of service requested by government agencies may range from a simple inquiry that can be answered by materials in the center's library to the development and installation of a plan of reorganization or administrative system for the entire government. In between these examples are a variety of survey or consultancy projects requiring intensive fact-gathering, analysis, and preparation of reports.

a. Information services. The "question and answer" type of information activity is the easiest kind of advisory service to offer. Any center with a good reputation and a library is asked for information on many subjects. The center's research and publications programs (see Chapters VI and VIII) may "institutionalize" the preparation of information reports by periodic publication of directories, statistical reports, and other compilations. As described in Chapter IX, a competent librarian responds to requests for spot information as a normal part of his professional duty.

b. Questions involving judgment. If the answer to the request for information does not require preference judgments, information may be provided as a matter of routine work. If an official asks for a bibliography on budgeting, a report on population trends, or information on national development offices in selected countries, the center need be concerned only that the information is available and the response is prompt, accurate, and well-organized. If the official asks whether the national budget unit should be located in the office of the country's chief executive or in the ministry of finance, or what measures of population control are effective, or what functions the development office should perform, an entirely different situation is created because the center faces the question of how far to go in rendering advice entailing complex issues of judgment, as contrasted with information.

c. Formal informational reports. The request for information may not entail questions of policy or operational judgment but may require much staff work if the information is not available in the center's library or otherwise readily obtained. The request for comparative information on functions of development offices, for example, may require correspondence with persons in other countries or with international agencies such as the IIAS or the Public Administration Division of the United Nations. Centers usually welcome such inquiries, but they must have adequate staff resources, and the reports require careful review by the head of the center or a competent member of the staff.

d. Consultative requests. The request for help from the center may contain implicitly, if not explicitly, judgment on what should be changed—or what should be done to improve policy, program, organization, or procedures. The official may not desire a formal survey or report, but only spot advice with perhaps an informal recommendation. Centers can render very valuable assistance in this area if they have persons on their staffs capable of giving such help. However, a staff member without sensitivity to political implications of advice and unaware of his own ignorance can unwittingly place his center in awkward or embarrassing situations. Accordingly a center requires policies and methods regulating the contacts its staff members have with officials.

e. Individual vs. institutional assistance. Whatever the character of the request, there should be early understanding as to whether assistance will be provided by a staff member assuming sole responsibility for performance, or whether it will be an "institutionalized" project. Professors in universities commonly give consultancy assistance on a personal basis. While informal relationships of this kind may be encouraged, a center which offers institutional assistance will normally need to control all such assistance however rendered. In any event, the amount of assistance needs to be reflected in each staff member's work program.

f. Advise without advice. A very experienced director says that if a center wishes to have a policy of "not giving advice" it can go a long way in giving advice while insisting it is not doing so. By giving information, by showing alternatives, by reporting how other agencies or countries have solved the problem, and in discussing the issues a resourceful staff member can show what the only practical solution may be. If the subject is controversial or politically sensitive, it is wise to avoid written recommendations. Studies of a "secret" nature are not appropriate for centers.

g. Formal surveys. If the request calls for advice on a complex administrative or progam problem, intensive fact-gathering and analysis are required, namely, by means of a formal survey and report. The center's director and senior staff members should be accessible to government officials to discuss such questions with them and to give informal advice. Being a good listener and sounding board to officials on their problems is a useful role in itself. Moreover, it is out of such discussions that requests for formal surveys normally originate. Surveys require the availability of qualified staff, and therefore decisions to undertake such projects may not be made casually.

h. Relation to research. In Chapter VI the need for a center's staff to engage in research to keep abreast of substantive knowledge is stressed. Such research often covers subjects of interest to government officials, and it may have the character of formal informational reports. Thus, policies and decisions relating to research and to the performance of advisory services are interrelated, and the two may be conducted as a single administrative element of a center.

2. Relevance of Advisory Services to a Center's Objectives

Involvement of a center's staff in consultancy assignments has many beneficial by-products for the educational programs of the center. Both the center and government may derive much value, but there are also dangers.

a. Maintenance of official contacts. The conduct of a center's educational programs requires close collaboration with officials at central, regional, and local levels. The more the center responds to the needs of officials, the easier it is to enlist cooperation in the degree and non-degree educational programs. Thus, a system of relationships conducive to the conduct of advisory services contributes to support for educational programs.

b. Accessibility of research channels. Research projects to develop knowledge and information of general value, as well as for the edification of staff members, often require accessibility to information and experience obtainable only in government offices. Relationships established by response to requests for information and advisory assistance helps open channels for research projects. The center's research interests and the need of officials for assistance often can be combined to the advantage of both.

c. Contribution to teaching. An effective instructor in both pre-service and in-service professional training must be familiar with the laws, organization, procedures, problems, and thinking of the public service. There is no better method of learning about public administration and the problems and views in government than by engaging in advisory services, especially in conducting surveys. There is no better place to collect realistic and practical illustrations for teaching than by participating with government departments in problem-solving situations.

d. Instructional materials. Surveys and other forms of consultancy assistance open up invaluable instructional resources. In addition to the data collected and the reports that emanate from such projects, opportunities are provided for the preparation of cases for classroom use. Research and service interests thus are joined.

e. Enhancement of staff competences. Of all experience, none equals consultancy for providing insights and capabilities in both public administration theory and its application. Consultancy assignments thus provide an exceptional opportunity for enhancing the competences of a center's staff for both teaching and research. However, there are many dangers in this work and a "creative experience" for a staff member may be a failure for the government and an embarrassment to the center.

f. Field work for students. Information and survey projects often offer opportunities for students to gain experience in fact-gathering, analysis, and report writing. This kind of clinical field work is invaluable if it can be fitted into the student's academic program, such as during school vacation periods or as a terminal trainee staging period prior to official assignment. Utilization on surveys of former students beginning their careers in public service or the employment of junior administrative persons being prepared for higher responsibility are other ways of simultaneously fulfilling consultancy and training objectives.

g. Value to government. These training benefits are secondary, of course, to the primary purpose of advisory services. An expert staff of a center, unencumbered with daily tasks of administrators, can devote sufficient time to gathering and analyzing data about problems, developing and testing corrective measures, and examining objectively structure, practices, and procedures. It also develops analytical skills and professional insights that hard-pressed practitioners are unable to acquire. A center thus staffed can render a very significant service to government.

h. Relation to administrative improvement staffs. What should be the policy of a center in relation to administrative management, organization and methods (O & M), or other designated staff within government charged with administrative improvement as a continuing responsibility?

(1) Such units should be recognized as invaluable for improving systems, procedures, work assignments, administrative practices, and organization.

(2) A center should not duplicate the work of these administrative improvement units but rather should give them support, notably by helping to train their staffs.

(3) A few centers have been designated by governments to serve as the official administrative improvement organ. This may be at best a temporary arrangement, as a center engaged in extensive degree and non-degree training can hardly carry the total responsibility for such services for the office of chief executive, the ministries, and public enterprises without being overwhelmed.

(4) There will be more requests for services, if a center has a qualified staff, than it can provide supplementary to "in house" administrative improvement units.

(5) A center is in a good position to furnish an outside viewpoint and to engage in studies requiring extensive collection of documentation and comparative fact-gathering and analysis. Informational reports and broad surveys are especially suitable for a center. Administrative improvement units usually are overburdened with immediate tasks.

(6) Some centers serve as the secretariat of parliamentary or special study commissions. They are sometimes commissioned to develop background research papers or to prepare formal reports in connection with such bodies of inquiry.

3. Policy Factors and Conditions

A number of important policy and conditioning factors should be faced by a center establishing a consultancy service.

a. A planned program. Whatever the policy regarding advisory services, it should be reflected in the center's work program. What, when, where, how much, and by whom are questions to be answered in developing the advisory service aspect of annual and long-term programs. In the early stages of a center, elementary information services may be all that are feasible. Until a center's staff possesses technical knowledge and analytical skills, there may be little demand for assistance on administrative problems. The first step is to engage in research and publications work, as well as to develop confidence through effective teaching. Even after a center is equipped with staff capable of rendering consulting assistance, it must create and nurture a feeling of confidence by public officials in its ability, its readiness to do competent work, and in its discretion.

b. Financing of services. Budgetary provision is necessary for advisory services as for every other element of a center's program. Even informational services may not be treated as incidental to the instructional program. The four related activities of (1) library reference services, (2) informational services, (3) research, and (4) advisory services should be programmed and budgeted as complementary elements. The practice of having government departments pay for special and major services is desirable, but they must have budgeted funds available. Officials place more value on assistance they pay for, and the assisting center has a special incentive if it is paid for its services. However, officials in control of funds are not always aware of the value of advisory services in public administration, and unless funds are specifically identified for this purpose, they may not be available when needed.

c. Qualifications of staff. Conducting administrative surveys and giving consultative assistance are the most difficult of any tasks a center performs. They require comparable knowledge and sophistication, as well as several additional skills, to that needed by government administrators. An effective administrative consultant must be (1) thoroughly grounded in the theory and practice of public administration; (2) skilled in fact-gathering and analytical work entailed in problem-solving; (3) capable of developing, testing, and installing changes in organization and procedures; (4) effective in negotiation; (5) politically sensitive without being politically motivated; (6) committed to giving credit to officials for improvements, himself remaining in the background; and (7) dedicated to public service and its improvement.

d. Development of staff. Persons with the above competences are rare, with possibly only a few in an entire country, and they may be unavailable. A deliberate recruitment and training program is thus called for. Fortunately, persons with aptitude for effective teaching in public administration are likely to have high potential for research and consultancy work, albeit some inspiring teachers prove impractical in administrative situations. In general, instructors well-grounded in public administration have much to offer, and they develop rapidly with training and experience. Inexperienced persons employed by the center for their academic talents can serve as apprentices to seniors on consultancy projects. Another method is to send the staff member to a professional school of public administration where a solid grounding in research, administrative management, and O & M methodologies is provided. If the center includes such subjects in its curriculum or conducts training projects for O & M officers, it can draw on its own resources in developing staff. It is equally important to provide training and supervised experience for staff members recruited from administrative posts. Although they may have the benefit of wide contact with administration and "speak the same language" as practitioners, they are prone to neglect fact-gathering and analysis, to arrive at premature conclusions, and to apply traditional solutions. If both practitioner and academic types of persons work together on projects, each develops new competences.

e. Reference materials. Considerable material has been written on conducting administrative improvement projects and surveys. The center's library should make a special effort to acquire survey reports, studies containing recommended procedures, and other documents from various agencies and countries for reference both in the instructional programs as well as in advisory service work. Not only do such studies comprise some of the richest teaching material, but the work plans, project files, and other documentation developed in rendering advisory services become a valuable part of the center's consultancy reference materials.

f. Confidentiality. Staff persons engaged in advisory services must be prepared to maintain confidences of officials who share information about shortcomings of personnel and inadequacies of procedures. Permanent and accessible files should not contain such information. If officials find that they can discuss sensitive problems with the director and staff of a center without fear of misuse of their trust, the influence of the center is greatly enhanced.

g. Publication of reports. Centers usually want to publish the result of their work and use it in teaching. In consultancy projects, a decision whether survey reports and other documents of findings and recommendations may be disseminated must be the "customer's." Otherwise, no fully cooperative relationship can prevail. In some cases, the passage of time may permit publishing and distributing a report without adverse repercussions. For use in teaching, it may be feasible to alter it to preserve anonymity or to remove sensitive elements. The basic principle must be that, if the agency asking for consultancy service desires to preserve the confidentiality of material produced or even if it wishes to conceal the fact it sought advice, the center must strictly and conscientously respect these restrictions.

h. Agencies served. A center's policies will indicate the agencies it wishes to serve and whose requests it will accept. Ideally, a center should respond to requests for information or consultancy assistance from all ministries and agencies, including public enterprises. Regional local governments often have greatest need because they have no alternative resources. In its early stages, the center may find it expedient to limit its services to those requested through a central office of the chief executive. If the center has a central liaison point in the government, it may resolve the problem in consultation with that office. It may find it useful also to have an advisory committee drawn from government with which to consult regarding specific requests for assistance.

i. Officer requesting. Requests for information may be fulfilled even if coming from subordinate officers, but the more extensive the service being sought the more formal and authoritative should be the request. The center may find it desirable to develop basic rules regarding the method of receiving official requests.

j. Authority within center. Similarly, ground rules are needed on who can commit a center to a consultancy project. Informal requests to individual staff members for advice should not be accepted without consultation with the director or head of the advisory services division, both to improve advice and to ensure reasonable consistency. Requests for substantial assistance should be treated as institutional projects subject to formal negotiation and agreement.

k. Publicity. The best publicity for advisory services is the reputation of successful accomplishment. If a center has a record of competence in teaching and of responding well to requests for information, invitations for more extensive service should follow. Initiation of a consultancy program can be publicized through an announcement or brochure describing the services offered. The new service can be explained informally on appropriate occasions, mostly as incidental to contacts with officials.

On the other hand, publicity on specific projects usually should be avoided, at least until the project is completed. Any publicity should emanate from government, not from the center. If officials wish to announce the project or release copies of reports to the press, radio, or television, the center can help in preparing a news release and in participating in any presentations. The initiative and any credit in such publicity belong to the responsible officials.

4. Initiating a Project

Knowledge of how to plan, organize, and conduct consultancy projects is part of the capability essential in such work.

a. Suitability of project. When a proposed consultancy task is initially broached, the center must decide after adequate exploration whether it meets criteria of eligibility, such as

(1) Competence of staff

(2) Availability of staff

(3) Feasibility of the project

(4) Suitable timing of work

(5) Possibility of funding

(6) Accessibility to relevant documents and information

(7) Sincerity of the requesting officials

(8) Political acceptability of project

(9) Prospects of constructive results

(10) Prospects of completing project within time limits

(11) Contribution of proposal to center's teaching and research interests.

b. Reconnaissance. If the proposal appears to be desirable, the next step is to define the scope of the problem and the resources required. For this purpose, a "reconnaissance" is made of the proposal to ascertain the scope of tasks as shown in Appendix B, "Model for Administrative Problem-Solving." The purpose of the reconnaissance is to learn enough about the character and scope of the problem that a work plan can be prepared basic to an agreement or memorandum of uncerstanding between the requesting agency and the center. Usually a reconnaissance consists of discussions with officials primarily concerned, a review of applicable documents, a preliminary examination of organization or procedures, and the best estimate of what must be done, how, by whom, and the time required. From two days to two weeks may be spent profitably on the reconnaissance, but if the project is a short or simple one, the reconnaissance may consist only of discussions with the initiating officials.

c. Project work plan. If the reconnaissance confirms the feasibility and desirability of accepting the project, a written work plan should be prepared in careful detail, although its preparation in preliminary form is also an integral part of the reconnaissance and negotiation. The work plan should:

(1) Set forth the objectives

(2) Define the character and scope of work to be done.

(3) Describe the fact-gathering methods and how they would be conducted.

(4) Indicate who would be project officer and what other staff would be assigned for what periods.

(5) Identify the senior general officer of the center, if other than the director, who would exercise overall control over the project and approve recommendations and formal reports.

(6) Note who in government would be assigned to work on the project, who would be responsible for arrangements and decisions, and how employees affected would be informed.

(7) Prescribe the end product in terms of memoranda, reports, procedures, regulations, schedules, installations, or whatever would be essential to complete the project.

(8) Include a detailed timetable for conducting the various tasks involved.

(9) Estimate the cost and state how project would be financed.

(10) Suggest how the project would contribute to the teaching, research, and publications program of the center.

Note that the work plan for a consultancy project has many similarities to an institutional research project as described in Chapter VI.

d. Written agreement. The reconnaissance findings and the work plan provide the information for a written agreement or memorandum of understanding between the center and the government agency requesting assistance. Negotiation of such a statement is essential to a clear understanding by both parties as to expectations and mutual obligations. Accessibility to records and confidential files and the freedom to talk with employees having useful information or opinions would be indicated. Any questions about confidentiality and restrictions on publications or other use of information collected should be resolved in the agreement.

Financial obligations and responsibility for working space, clerical assistance, reproduction of documents, and publicity should be clearly defined. For limited consultancies, an exchange of letters is usually sufficient.

e. Initiation of project. After the written agreement, the project officer should develop a final detailed work plan. Each staff member, outside consultant, or student participating in the project should be supplied with a copy of the plan, together with a specific statement of the precise nature of his role. Virtually every project, from the simplest to the most complex, can be subdivided further into tasks or operations. Clear to all should be the nature of these tasks, as well as when they are to be undertaken, by whom, and how. A schedule showing the time of each as part of a master timetable provides the basis for progress reporting and project control. Inadequacies in planning and scheduling are largely responsible for the fact that (1) most consultancies are not completed on time, (2) much unnecessary data is collected, and (3) important information is overlooked when needed.

f. Informing agency employees. Employees at all levels affected by the project should know about it. If informed in advance of rumors that an investigation is taking place, fears and suspicions can be allayed. The successful conduct of surveys and especially the installation of changes in organization and procedures depend on the participation of many employees. Timely measures to enlist cooperation include:

(1) Invitation of the project director to participate at a staff meeting of the agency at which the project is discussed.

(2) Distribution to all employees of an informational memorandum or aide-memoire describing the project and who is involved. It will indicate how the purposes are advantageous to employees as well as to the public.

(3) Visits by the project staff with all key employees as soon as possible to develop relationships, enlist help, and abate fears.

(4) Meetings of groups of employees with their supervisors may be indicated in some projects to secure views on alternate solutions or train them in new procedures.

The more the employees of any agency feel a partnership in the project and participate in deciding its course, the more likelihood of the project's success. No proposal changing organization, methods, or procedures will find acceptance if the employees do not understand it or if they sabotage it. Any time saved by eliminating these preliminary stages of a project can be lost manyfold in false starts, misunderstandings, obstruction, unnecessary work, and the need for lengthy justifications during later stages.

5. Fact-gathering, Analysis, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The task of the project staff is to follow the procedure shown in the "Model for Problem-Solving," namely, ascertaining precisely the nature of the problems, determining what caused them, drawing conclusions about the situation, formulating solutions, and selecting the solution or remedy that would have optimal chance of success. This is a scientific process universally applicable.

a. Learning the facts. The basic element in the analytical process is becoming fully informed about all relevant information. In becoming thoroughly informed in various fact-gathering techniques, reference may be made to articles, books, and monographs on research, fact-gathering, and analytical methods assembled by the center. Documents bearing directly on the problems to be solved through the project will also need to be collected. Important fact-gathering techniques include:

(1) Study of relevant laws, reports, and other documents shedding light on the problem.

(2) Examination of reports of any previous related study or survey.

(3) Collection and analysis of all record forms and flow of transactions or papers.

(4) Sample review of files, dossiers, cases, etc.

(5) Use of questionnaires

(6) Statistical studies

(7) Interviews of persons who can report on facts, procedures, bottlenecks, deficiencies, poor performance, needs, possible improvements, etc.

(8) Charting of work assignments, structures, processes.

(9) Work measurement and indices of achievement

b. Collection of irrelevant information. A skilled consultant once referred to the collection of facts in a survey as a kin to collecting refuse or garbage; it is folly to collect the material unless there is a means of disposal. An experienced analyst economizes on time in identifying the issues and problems in the reconnaissance, thus having determined what facts are essential and how to develop them. Knowledge of experience in other agencies or governments will help guide his line of inquiry. Obviously, new problems and new leads to useful data are found in the course of inquiry, but the capable staff member sifts these things rapidly and assesses their significance and relevance to the project's conclusions and recommendations.

c. Analysis and conclusions. Analysis is a distinctive yet inseparable part of fact-gathering. The less experienced the analyst the more essential that he collect the important facts before he interprets and draws conclusions. The more knowledgeable and skillful the analyst and the more familiar he is with the problem being presented, the quicker he can reach valid findings and proposed solutions. If notes are made and classified indicating the relevance of various data and suggestions affecting conclusions and remedies, the task of analyzing the facts is accelereated. During this process of analysis, alternate solutions or factors bearing on the suitability of solutions should be considered and reduced to writing. Memoranda and preliminary outlines of the report may be started with applicable material organized by substantive or problem area.

d. Formulating and testing recommendations. As work progresses, each potentially optimum solution or remedy should be elaborated with arguments for and against based on the analysis of relevant facts. Through this process and by evaluation of the merits of each solution, one preferable recommendation may become evident, or alternative solutions may have sufficient substantial merit to warrant two or more alternatives being submitted to agency officials. Through consultations with officials during the survey, preliminary agreements can be reached, thus reducing the task to that of describing the proposed changes convincingly to facilitate implementation. The ideal but seldom achieved project is that in which decisions are taken and implemented during the survey, with a final report merely recording what was accomplished. If the phases of a project are separable, the development of proposed solutions for each phase can lead to separate decisions and installation. However, if the problem is unitary, such as a new budget system, reorganization of a ministry, establishing a central administrative management (O & M) office, or the planning and management of development projects, decisions may be required at the highest level. If the recommendations require additional funds or an increase, reduction, or redistribution of staff, formal proposals may require review at several administrative levels.

6. Presentation of Recommendations

The main object of a consultancy project is to solve an administrative or program problem. Some academic persons stress the compilation of reports in lieu of other methods of problem resolution.

a. Progress reports. One method of obtaining continuing concurrence from government officials during the development of findings and the formulation of recommendations is through the use of progress reports. These reports are essential also for project control. Obviously, some findings and contemplated proposals should not be put in writing at this stage, but only after discussion with appropriate officials.

b. Method of presentation. Recommendations may take the form of oral presentations with an agenda, charts of various kinds, draft laws or regulations, a draft manual or handbook, memoranda, letters, special reports, and one or more formal reports, including follow-up evaluation reports. The methods suitable for the project should be specified in the work plan and given much thought as the project progresses.

c. Preliminary consultations. The value of discussing recommendations with officials responsible for decisions in advance of formal submittals cannot be overstressed. Such officials may be shown preliminary drafts of reports or other documents. Recommendations on some projects can be considered piecemeal, but in others the character of the subject requires a comprehensive report and careful study of the entire subject. Although it may not be always appropriate to discuss proposed reports with junior or intermediate employees, the more that employees feel their suggestions are being accepted, with credit given where feasible, the more probable will be a favorable outcome. However, findings and recommendations should not be distorted in formal reports to accommodate to the views of officials if the facts and analysis do not justify it.

d. Formal reports. The preparation of effective reports is an art requiring both skill and effort. Obviously, reports should be concise, clear, readable, intelligible, and convertible into decision and action. A perusal of any collection shows that many survey or consultancy reports are poorly written. Although reports should differ in approach, style, and treatment to fit the different subjects and situations, the following criteria generally apply to major or comprehensive reports:

(1) A letter of transmittal signed by the director of the center, or possibly by the project supervisor or officer, should summarize the origin and purpose of the project and what has been accomplished, the general terms of reference, who has participated and acknowledgments of assistance from within government. Previous reports submitted under the project may be listed. Next steps and willingness to give further assistance normally would be indicated.

(2) The first or last chapter or section usually should be a statement of the problems or issues, with a summary of findings or conclusions and recommendations.

(3) If the summary is placed at the end, the first chapter ordinarily should consist of a comprehensive statement of the objectives, problems, issues, and findings of the survey. This arrangement gives challenge and interest to the report.

(4) The following sections develop the major problems or issues and propose solutions. The focus should be on the nature of the difficulty and its solution, with descriptive or historical material used only as supporting information to explain why the recommendations are the most suitable under the circumstances.

(5) By emphasizing what should be changed and how changes can be effected or installed, the report becomes a handbook for action.

(6) The effect of the recommendations on an increase or decrease in budgetary requirements, on an increase or decrease in staff, on new equipment to be procured, and office space should be indicated.

(7) The advantages or results to be derived from adoption of the recommendations may be mentioned in the summary section or developed as a separate section. The sections on each phase or problem would cite the expected outcome of the proposals as part of the argument for their adoption.

(8) An attractive format and cover suitably labeled adds dignity and character to the report.

(9) Enough copies of reports should be reproduced to serve all appropriate purposes. Too often copies are exhausted before needs are met.

e. Follow-up. This stage of consultancy includes sending letters of thanks for cooperation and suggestions; distributing copies of the final report as appropriate; collaborating with officials in resolving issues and in implementation measures; and reporting on further problems needing attention discovered during the project.

f. Implementation. Many surveys fail to produce effective results, even though recommendations are approved, because of failures in implementation. If the government is unable to assign officers, most appropriately drawn from administrative management units, to supervise the installation of new organization, procedures, and reassignments, a further consultancy project by the center may be needed. This project also entails a new statement of objectives, work plan, agreement, etc.

7. Evaluation

After suitable time has elapsed—perhaps a year in the case of major survey —an effort should be made to evaluate results. This effort includes assessment of the extent to which stated objectives were achieved, improvements made, savings effected, better service rendered, and other criteria of benefit. Attempts to evaluate results are difficult in many cases and often are incapable of quantification; they should, nevertheless, be as valid as possible. The findings of such evaluations should be shared with senior officials and used especially to measure the center's performance and to devise better methods of conducting subsequent projects.

Chapter VIII. FORMULATION OF A PUBLICATIONS PROGRAM

Purpose. The issuance of publications form an important part of the program of any center. Chapters VI and VII report on how research and consultancy projects often produce publishable material. In a small center, the variety and quantity of publications may be quite limited. In a large center, the publications program may be a sizable operation involving a number of persons. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the various kinds of publications that a center may find desirable to issue, to suggest criteria for their preparation, and to provide guidelines for a successful program.

1. Various Kinds of Publications

In formulating a publications program, the first step is to identify the several objectives and uses of publications. By analyzing the contribution that each kind can make in the operations of a center, directors can establish [illegible]ies and a plan of action within available resources.

a. Descriptive folder. The most elementary and necessary issuance of a center is a folder or brochure describing the purpose, functions, organization, and other pertinent information about the center. The folder may be a simple leaflet or a several-page document with pictures. Some centers use both. Folders have the public relations purpose of giving persons served by the center, or whose support is needed, information about it in a manner to produce a favorable response. They may be used to acquaint officials and prospective trainees or students with a center's curricula and requirements, although a bulletin and special announcements, as described in Chapters IV and V, may be used for that purpose.

b. Announcements and circulars. Every center issues announcements of special courses, conferences, meetings, and other events. These may range from one-page mimeographed or printed statements or invitations to a catalogue or bulletin describing curriculum and requirements in considerable detail. Such information is especially appropriate for publication in newspapers through which it reaches a very wide audience.

c. Newsletters. A newsletter is an ideal means for periodically disseminating information about a center, developments in government, events of general interest, and new ideas and concepts. The character of the newsletter is determined by whether it is designed primarily for public officials, students or graduates of the center, the general public, or some combination of these. Newsletters are reported to be the most interesting and widely-read issuances of centers.

d. Professional journals. Many centers publish a journal containing scholarly articles and/or materials of value to officials for operational guidance. As described below the issuance of a high quality journal is a demanding and expensive undertaking, and should not be lightly undertaken. Some centers issue a combined newsletter and journal. This combination enables newsworthy articles and information to be published, but avoids the difficulty inherent in a journal devoted to articles of scholarly quality.

e. Information memoranda or reports. If a center provides an information service for government officials as mentioned in Chapters VI and VII, it needs to develop a standard format for its reports. A simple masthead and use of an inexpensive method of reproduction lend themselves to either brief memoranda of a few pages or a more extensive document of a dozen or twenty pages. Some centers prepare and distribute a considerable number of informational reports on subjects they find of wide interest to selected publics.

f. Research reports and monographs. Individual and institutional research often results in significant material worthy of publication. An informational memorandum or report may be used to summarize the results of a research study or consultancy project. If fuller treatment of the study or reproduction of the basic report would have value within the country and for centers and agencies outside of the country, a more formal document may be indicated. Such reports or monographs may be issued in a standard format as part of a continuous series.

g. Advisory/consulting reports. A center that makes numerous studies or conducts advisory services at the invitation of government agencies needs to design a standard cover and format for its reports. These reports may be typewritten or restricted to a few copies of a reproduced version. If appropriate for wider distribution, the report would be issued in a report series as described under (e) or (f) above in a summarized, modified, or even original form.

h. Yearbooks, handbooks, and directories. As suggested in Chapter II, one of the most useful services of a center is the issuance of yearbooks, statistical compilations of government and public interest, directories, and other data.

(1) Such documents have enormous value in disseminating basic information about government within official circles. This is especially true at the municipal level, where one municipality can profit from another's experience. Even in a national government, one branch may not know what other branches are doing.

(2) A handbook describing government organizations, functions, and offices may have wide sale.

(3) Yearbooks may compile activities, service data, taxes and expenditures, or progress in achieving development goals. Yearbooks covering facts and activities of local governments are especially popular.

(4) Such handbooks or yearbooks are generally major research undertakings and require considerable professional judgment and editorial skill.

i. Instructional material. All centers conducting academic or non-degree programs assemble and reproduce instructional materials. Cases, simulations, and descriptive material are especially needed in the early years of a center, and should be progressively improved with experience. Some of this material is prepared by the center's staff. Other materials are extracted or reprinted from existing publications, often of foreign origins, for which permission to reproduce must be obtained. A standard system for reproduction and giving credit for such materials is needed. Syllabi for courses, class discussion guides, and bibliographies are another type of instructional material that should be prepared and reproduced according to standard specifications. The preparation of textbooks or the translation and reprinting of texts and other historically significant writings may serve a number of purposes.

j. Articles and books. A center's publication program may encourage the writing of articles for international journals or magazines issued in other countries. In such instances the article's treatment should conform to the specifications and character of the journal for which it is written. Occasionally, a staff member of a center produces a professional book for use by students, scholars, and officials. It is usually advantageous to have a commercial publisher, a university press, or government printing office print and distribute substantial treatises.

k. Publication of lectures and papers. Invitations to officials and scholars to give lectures often provide materials that can be issued as special papers and circulated to persons having special interest in the subject. If the lecturer has not prepared a manuscript, a recording and transcription can be made. Transcribed lectures and speeches usually provide poor reading material, but experience shows that if returned to the speaker he will usually rewrite it completely (sometimes with help) with the result that a good publication becomes available. Conferences often yield a rich harvest of publishable manuscripts, especially if speakers are asked to prepare papers suitable for that purpose. An entire conference can be organized in a manner to produce a book of proceedings.

2. Planning the Program

The relative desirability of including each of the above kinds of publications in a center's program needs careful assessment. The value, feasibility, and cost of each have to be calculated and weighed.

a. Contribution to objectives. Obviously, some publications, such as brochures, announcements, newsletters, and information bulletins, are so essential to a center's operations that the only question is the form they should take. The value of publishing a professional journal, yearbooks, and other ambitious publications may be offset by lack of capability and funds. Issuance of research monographs and some kinds of instructional material offers one of the most effective means of achieving a center's substantive objectives. The prospect of a published document is a great inducement to a staff member or to persons outside of a center to put in extra hours to produce a creditable study, case, or article.

b. Feasibility. Professional journals, monographs, handbooks, and yearbooks should not be undertaken unless the center has an experienced editor and contributing staff. Many worthy undertakings have floundered either because of lack of qualified staff or the preoccupation with other tasks of higher priority or urgency. The research and writing capabilities of a center's staff may be tested initially through publication of their products in a newsletter or an outside journal.

c. Budgetary resources. Centers frequently embark on publications without realizing their cost and with false hopes of income from sales. The publications program becomes a drain on limited resources needed for more urgent tasks. Advertising from book publishers and similar sources may provide income supplementing that from sales. Thus, before including a journal, monograph, yearbook, textbook, or other costly document in the program, it should be evaluated by cost-effectiveness or other cost-benefit criteria.

d. Priorities for research publications. Assessment of the potential market and value of publications aids in resolving research priorities. Since the purpose of research articles, monographs, and reports is to provide essential knowledge to improve public service and contribute to national development, every project should be tested by this factor. Otherwise, some staff members will tend to follow their individual perceptions and prepare descriptive, legalistic, or doctrinaire documents of little value to those who seek to improve the country's administrative systems and development efforts.

e. Formulating the program. When these possibilities and factors are assessed, a formal publications program and budget can be developed for final decision by the center's director, governing board, or whoever has final budgetary authority. Ideally, the program should show the specifications of each publication; its purpose; market; anticipated circulation; estimated cost of preparation; method of reproduction; distribution; estimated income from sales, if any; source and amount of subvention, if any; and evidence of need for document and benefits to be derived. This evaluation requires estimating and accounting for time of staff applied to the project and not treating personal services as a free resource. The issuance of some documents may be urgent and should not be delayed pending development of a program. Even after a program has been adopted, new possibilities and priorities will become evident which the center may wish to consider.

f. Starting modestly. Because of the many pitfalls in the preparation of satisfactory publications, a modest program is advisable until capabilities are established. One good document is better than several poor ones. Most persons gain their impression of the competence and stature of the center through material received from it. A center which "puts its best foot forward" with timely, attractive publications is well on the way to establishing a fine reputation.

3. Assignment of Responsibilities

It is as important to define responsibilities for the preparation, editing, reproduction, distribution, storage, and budgetary control over publications as it is to decide what to publish.

a. Informal or simple publications. A skillful writer and editor is essential to a center of any size. In small organizations such a person may help also on administrative affairs, negotiation, teaching, registration, or arrangements for conferences. The director usually will need to assume the main responsibility for preparing the folder or brochure describing the center. Preparation of one or more announcements is ordinarily a function related to planning an event, but the assignment of this task to a skilled editor with talent for design can add greatly to their attractiveness and effectiveness. Responsibility for issuance of a newsletter may be assigned to such an editor, an administrative assistant, the registrar, or an instructor, depending on who has interest, competence, and persistence. The preparation of instructional materials—which may range from authoring textbooks or preparing case problems to a "scissors and paste" job—must rest generally with the instructor.

b. Difficult publications. If a center decides to issue a professional journal, monographs, yearbooks, and similar ambitious undertakings, more substantial arrangements are necessary. Only a full-time and technically competent publications director or senior editor can develop an extensive publications program and give the sustained initiative and follow-through that this work entails. In addition, other staff persons will need to take leading roles in writing articles, producing acceptable texts for monographs or research reports, and collecting and compiling data for handbooks, yearbooks, or directories. If a country has several centers, they may collaborate in the issuance of documents of this kind.

c. Keeping informed. To capitalize fully on publications opportunities, the publications officer needs full knowledge of what the center is attempting to accomplish in all departments, and he needs easy access to potential authors both within and outside the center. This calls for participation in staff meetings and conferences, in discussions of the center's work program, in research planning sessions, and in field activities.

4. Reproduction and Distribution

Every center requires some reproduction equipment.

a. Ditto process. The simplest machine is the "ditto" (spirit duplication) which produces up to about 100 copies of fairly readable typescript. This machine provides the cheapest and speediest method of producing informal material, notably for internal use, work drafts, and course materials. A convenient and economical use of this process, which produces a typed ribbon original and numerous copies, is to insert a "ditto master" into the typewriter as the carbon copy, which can be used to reproduce as many copies as needed.

b. Mimeograph and offset printing. For announcements, newsletters, bulletins, and formal reports required in quantity, either mimeographing or the offset printing process is essential. As a minimum, every center should have mimeograph equipment. Most centers find ownership or easy availability of offset equipment a great convenience. Offset printing has the advantage over mimeographing of reproducing readable typescript in quantity in short time, as well as ready reproduction of drawings, charts, and photographs. Very attractive and readable documents can be designed and reproduced by this process. Offset printed covers contribute substantially to a professional publication.

c. Printing. Brochures, formal invitations, and books generally require printing. Competitive bids from private suppliers or the use of a government or university printing office are the common methods of obtaining this service. Good results depend on the competence of an editor to specify format and type style, and to put manuscripts in correct form for typesetting.

d. Number of copies. Centers often exhaust the supply of some documents quickly, whereas there may be an excess of others. Generally, the reason for both situations lies in impulsive decisions about the market and in the lack of a distribution plan. Careful estimating of the number of copies required to fulfill long-term as well as immediate needs is an important decision and often determines the type of reproduction process to be utilized.

e. Mailing lists. The adequacy of the system of mailing lists covering the various categories of persons or publics with whom the center should communicate determines whether the documents reach the appropriate persons and whether the center possesses the ability to publicize events and convene meetings.

(1) Such a system permits the selection of whatever combination of sublists will meet a specific purpose. Unless mailing lists are maintained with current addresses, invitations, announcements, and documents will not reach the intended recipients.

(2) All staff members of a center should be alert to and responsible for adding names and correcting letters and addresses of persons on mailing lists.

(3) Periodic pruning of lists is also essential, or otherwise much "deadwood" accumulates.

(4) Although many persons contribute to keeping the lists up to date, one resourceful and tenacious person must be accountable for the maintenance and use of the lists.

(5) If subscriptions are paid for, names must be dropped promptly when renewal payments are delinquent, or addressees will learn that copies can be secured without cost, and eventually no one will pay for the publication.

(6) If lists are used frequently, time and expense are saved by using automatic addressing equipment.

5. Useful Hints

a. Assessment of the market. In deciding what to publish, a center should ensure that there is genuine need for the publication, that it will enhance the work of the center, and that it has a "message" for the intended recipients. A good publication is attuned to the cultural, social, political, and administrative environment to which it applies. Local staff, as well as persons drawn from other cultures, frequently produce materials irrelevant or insensitive to the local situation.

b. Criteria. In making a decision about issuance of a document, the center must consider the extent to which it will:

(1) Disseminate useful knowledge and information about public administration and public service and thus contribute to better practice.

(2) Inform readers about significant work of the center and thus foster participation and support for the center.

(3) Provide a tangible link between persons or agencies served and the center's staff.

(4) Contribute to the development of capabilities of a center by improving the staff's quality of writing.

(5) Assemble in organized form knowledge and experience about public administration for use by students, scholars, and practitioners, both at home and abroad.

(6) Produce revenue in the case of salable publications and, in turn, help in the center's efforts to secure budgetary support.

c. Format and style. An attractive, easily read publication makes a favorable impression. A poorly written, and shoddy document may do more harm than good. To be avoided is a ponderous, pedantic style of writing that is neither suitable or appealing to busy officials. Clear and simple exposition is an art and a reflection of true scholarship. It is easily distinguished from efforts to impress people with pseudo-learning.

d. Regularity. If commitment is made to issue a periodic newsletter or journal, it is important to adhere to publication dates. Such strict adherence keeps news items timely, fulfills expectations of readers, evidences seriousness of purpose and good performance in implementation, and "keeps the staff on its toes." Publication deadlines should be met as rigorously as course sessions or other scheduled events.

e. Scheduling. It is as necessary to have detailed work schedules or work plans for publications as in the conduct of research or advisory services. Whether the publication is a periodic journal, a monograph, or an assembly of instructional materials, many preparatory steps are required during early stages if the document is to be ready for reproduction on schedule. The processes of soliciting articles, rewriting, editing, checking facts, clearances for propriety or authorization of quoted or reprinted material, funding, negotiations for reproduction, and a host of other steps always takes more time than anticipated. The person responsible for any publication must be a rigorous taskmaster with authority to act.

f. Official and personal sensitivity. Embarrassment is easy to achieve by references in news notes or articles that are inaccurate or considered by someone to be derogatory. Objectivity in reporting is the standard to be raised to the top of any publication masthead.

(1) All materials should be verified to ensure that nothing is in bad taste, that they do not treat personalities either adversely or sycophantly, or that they do not constitute a premature or unauthorized issuance of privileged information.

(2) News items, articles, or monographs based on reports prepared for government, information obtained through access to official records, and confidential interviews require clearance and agreement as to what may be published.

(3) Publication of information involving policy proposals or issues requires prior concurrence at the highest levels, especially if the agency affected wishes to use or reproduce the report to serve official purposes.

(4) The requirement of attribution or credit must receive scrupulous observance.

(5) Publications that reveal inadequacies or the need for change may be resented by tradition-oriented officials. They may be criticized as the work of technicians or impractical persons who do not understand working realities. On the other hand, carefully prepared publications can strengthen the bonds of advocates of administrative, economic, and social reform. If publications are carefully prepared to eliminate dogmatism, unsupported generalizations, arrogance in expression, or unnecessary criticism, and especially if they are prepared to counter anticipated arguments with grace, an innocent publication, as well as naive ones, may be adjusted to avoid providing ammunition to opponents of modernization.

g. Reciprocal arrangements. A publications program entails a plan of exchange with other centers, with international technical assistance agencies, and with scholarly organizations that issue documents. This exchange enables a center to reach a broader clientele and in turn brings to the center a reliable flow of material for use in its own publications program. See Chapter IX for a discussion of exchanges as a means for acquiring library and reference materials. News notes or articles on how other countries are solving a problem similar to one of immediate local concern are often provocative and useful. Exchanges need continuous negotiation and control, or a center may find itself primarily on the giving end. To save postage and avoid waste of copies, a center may inform other agencies of the availability of documents through the placement of orders.

h. Solicitation of manuscripts. Procurement of news items, articles, and other written materials requires specific solicitation and agreement. Few persons respond to a general circular inviting contributions. In solicitation, the request should be specific as to subject, coverage, length, form, date of submission, proposed date of publication, and remuneration, if any. The more formal the article, monograph, or research report, the more detailed should be the agreement.

i. Remuneration. News items, articles, and other scholarly materials usually are written without remuneration as a professional obligation of officials and scholars. If a special report, research study, contribution to a formal symposium, or textbook is requested, which requires diversion of substantial time by the author, remuneration is usually appropriate. Acceptance constitutes a contract, which the author honors by submitting the agreed-upon manuscript and the center fulfills through prompt remuneration and publication, if the material is of the quality desired. Use of reliable authors and researchers avoids unpleasant and unprofitable situations resulting from the submission of shoddy materials.

j. Initiation of a journal. A common practice in launching a professional journal is to invite authors of international reputation to contribute articles. This practice may result in an impressive first issue, followed either by delay in subsequent issues or a sharp deterioration in content. Although it is desirable to make a good start, the formulation of plans and commitment of authors for several issues are advisable before the start of publishing. An editorial board is a valuable aid in planning a journal, especially in decisions of what should be published. An editor needs to be able to report to an author that a board "concluded that his article could best be published in some other journal."

6. Development of Writing and Publication Capabilities

As can be seen, planning and implementation of a publications program may not be left to amateurs. It requires specialists to oversee the main tasks, as well as staff members of a center ready to give support and to help in actual writing.

a. Training of editors. Publications supervisors and editors are trained in their tasks. They learn on the job, but many mistakes can be avoided if they are provided more formal training opportunities. Possibilities include:

(1) Acquisition and use of books and articles on writing, editing, and publishing.

(2) Examining of publications of other centers to see what constitutes excellence and what should be avoided.

(3) Visits to other publishing and editorial offices issuing comparable kinds of material or involving the same processes.

(4) Communications with or visits to centers in other countries to learn from their experience and to exchange ideas.

(5) Attendance in relevant courses

(6) Study of substantive materials in public administration to develop both awareness of what is newsworthy and competence to deal professionally with the field.

(7) Continuous consultation with other members of the center's staff in program planning, in decisions about news items and manuscripts, and in improving standards.

b. Importance of writing skills. Not only do the publications officer and editors need writing skills, but ability to write is also an important qualification of instructors, researchers, and other staff members. Indeed, if the director does not possess standards with which to judge the quality of materials, as well as to prepare and edit documents that emanate from his office, the entire publications program will suffer. One of the duties of instructors is to help students develop writing skills in the preparation of papers, project reports, and official communications.

c. Development of writing skills. Every center should have a program to develop an appreciation of what constitutes effective writing in public administration, of how to organize and write research and consultancy reports, and of how to produce official documents, cases, and text materials. Among ways to do this is to:

(1) Devote specific staff meetings to this subject

(2) Acquire and circulate handbooks on writing reports and other pertinent articles.

(3) Call the attention of staff members to both well-written and poorly-written publications, and the reasons for the difference.

(4) Bring experts to the center to conduct workshops or to give lectures in writing and report preparation.

(5) Require staff members to consult with and secure assistance from the center's chief editor, a procedure that involves delicate relationships.

(6) Send drafts of materials to experts for review

(7) Give commendation for preparation and publication of quality materials.

d. Substantive sensitivities. Far more than competence in use of language and designing an attractive publication is required from a good editor or publications director. Substantive knowledge and sensitivity to the impact of the publication are desirable. If an editor has research skills as well, especially in hypothesis-testing methods, many shortcomings in articles, monographs, and research reports can be avoided, especially unsupported propositions, conclusions, or caveats.

Chapter IX. LIBRARY AND REFERENCE SERVICES

Purpose. Even if a school or institute is part of a university and has access to the main library, it must have its own collection of documents and services to meet its special needs. Otherwise, its academic degree programs, short-term training, research, and advisory services will lack the documentation and specialized assistance that such work requires.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the requisites for a specialized administrative library and to provide guidelines on how to establish and operate such a library.

1. Basic Requirements

a. Need for library. The building of the document collection entails the cooperative effort of a professional librarian and the initiative of the institution's staff to report on what documents are needed and on the activities in the country or elsewhere that are likely to produce valuable materials. Many of the documents will consist of official reports, survey reports, professional issuances, and other monographs and memoranda that are never listed in the catalogues of publishing houses. To place such responsibility in a general university or public library, having different concerns and beset by pressures of traditional faculties, would be paralyzing.

b. Functions. An effective working library is the "intelligence" or nerve center of a school or institute. Instructors need to spend considerable time in the library developing syllabi, determining reading assignments, searching for official references and case studies, and checking on adequacy of documentation in specific subject fields. Students must search continuously for materials bearing on course subjects and on the preparation of projects and papers, as well as assigned readings. The librarian is the advisor and facilitator in these tasks.

c. Research role. Research studies and advisory services are dependent on the collection and study of documents bearing on the specific subject under investigation. The librarian searches for materials, refers items to the center's staff members in the fields of their interest, and serves as a partner in the total program of the institution.

d. Budgetary requirements. Obviously if a center is to maintain such a library, it must have a library budget, a qualified professional librarian, and suitable space and equipment. It has been estimated that for adequate service a center should have about 5% of the annual budget allocated for library purposes. The initial investment would, of course, be considerably higher. Budget requirements are affected by the scope of the center's instruction program. Advanced and diverse academic programs require far more library resources and service than short-term training courses for senior officials. An extensive research program likewise calls for a larger library program. If a general library is quite accessible, the administration library need not stock general titles in economics, history, law, and other academic disciplines or costly reference works not in continuous use.

e. Professional staff. If a professionally qualified librarian is not available, a satisfactory solution is sometimes found by selecting a person with excellent personal qualities and providing him with professional training, if necessary, abroad. Arrangements for such training should include a contractual agreement with the person to work for the center at least a minimum number of years upon completion of his training. The librarian might be given faculty status, but he should at least attend faculty meetings to enable him to coordinate library service with the center's activities.

f. Expert help in starting library. Establishment of a new library calls for special knowledge and experience not found in a newly-trained or traditional librarian. A frequent arrangement is to enlist the services of an experienced librarian for a limited contract period to organize the library, while the permanent librarian is receiving formal training in a professional school. Upon completion of training, the new graduate works for a short period under the direction of the contract librarian before assuming full administrative responsibility. A reasonable substitute for the latter is a two- to four-month practical training period in a well-established administration library immediately following professional training.

g. Clerical assistance. The exact size of the staff and the ratio of professional staff to non-professional depend on the library's size and activities, but some clerical and secretarial assistance will be needed as soon as a librarian has been appointed. A center does not secure the full return from its investment if the professional librarian is required to perform clerical and secretarial functions.

h. Avoidance of bonding. An unfortunate library practice in many parts of the world is to require that the librarian be bonded. This practice might not be illogical if the library functions chiefly as a museum. If it is a working library of the kind described here, bonding must be eliminated. It is not possible to ask an individual who is personally liable for the loss of any book to encourage students to use the library. If bonding is required by law, the center should arrange to assume the responsibility and guarantee the librarian against personal liability.

i. Space and equipment. Library services in many centers are handicapped by poor quarters and equipment. If space is utilized in an existing building, it should be arranged in a manner to accommodate to library operations and uses. If the center is fortunate in being able to erect a new building for the library or in which the library will be contained, a library building consultant working with a professional librarian can avoid costly mistakes.

j. Library committee. The center should establish a library committee, or a library and publications committee, on which the librarian should be a member. It should stimulate requests for accessions, review library policies, make recommendations, and in other ways promote the use of library facilities.

2. Library Facilities

a. Planned quarters. Whether the library occupies new or adopted quarters, experience shows that a library functions far more successfully in quarters designed and arranged for library purposes.

There are many factors that can and should be taken into consideration if it is necessary to adapt to makeshift quarters. For example, an important feature is a single combined entrance/exit available to all library users. This feature enables the library to be kept open during slack periods with only one member of the staff on duty to advise persons entering the library and to observe departing users. If a fire code requires emergency exits, they may be fitted with a "panic bar" which opens a locked door and simultaneously sounds an alarm. As the staff and the library expand, it becomes increasingly desirable to provide a service entrance for staff and delivery of mail, thus reducing traffic through reference, reading, and study areas. For a comprehensive study of library architectural problems, see Keyes D. Metcalf's "Planning Academic and Research Library Building," published in 1965 by McGraw Hill, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York.

b. Protection of documents. Documents need protection from three major enemies of paper: (1) sunlight, (2) humidity, and (3) insects. The first can be screened out easily by use of a structural design that provides protection from the sun. In temperate zones buildings are sometimes constructed with great sheets of glass for architectural effect, thus creating a problem for libraries. It does not follow that windows need to be eliminated, but they should be limited and shielded from the outside by horizontal louvres or other devices.

c. Air conditioning. Tropical humidity and insects can be equally destructive and are best controlled by air conditioning, which also has the obvious advantage of improving working conditions for both users and library staff.

d. Furnishings. In Europe and North America, it is possible to select from a wide variety of equipment and furnishings designed specifically for libraries. Deliveries may be made anywhere in the world but not all centers can afford such imports. Locally-produced furniture is not only more economical, but also it may be more durable than imports. Local craftsmen should be able to protect wood from insects and metal from corrosion. What they cannot do is anticipate the library's needs for adjustable shelving, individual carrels, and the multitude of requirements that the library equipment manufacturers specialize in meeting. If given adequate specifications, some of the desirable equipment features can be approximated. By combining the skilled expertise of local craftsmen with the wisdom of a professional library consultant, a center can find effective solutions. For a consideration of library problems peculiar to the tropics, see Wilfred Plumbe's "Furniture and Equipment in Tropical Libraries" in UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries, V. 15, No. 5, pp. 271-276.

e. Accessibility. The matter of shelving involves a basic consideration—easy accessibility of the documents to staff, students, and other legitimate library users. There is no acceptable alternative to open shelves, available to all authorized persons. No subject catalogue is a satisfactory substitute for access to books and other documents arranged in subject order on open shelves. Since there is always some "loss" of documents under such a system, free access by other than the staff of the school or institute may not be feasible if the librarian is required to be bonded and personally liable for such losses.

f. Work space. One facility commonly slighted is adequate work space for the staff. In addition to space for desks and shelving, the staff area should include work tables for wrapping and unwrapping packages, sorting, pasting, and an easily accessible sink. A small office enclosed with glass within sight of the entrance/exit enables typing, telephoning, and business conversations to take place without disturbing readers, and at the same time facilitates surveillance of library use.

3. Assistance to Library Users

The amount and variety of services or assistance provided by the library staff depend on the programs of the institution.

a. Instruction in use. If the institution enrolls students in academic degree programs, they should be familiarized with all resources and library research tools and techniques. Civil servants and other mature persons enrolled in short courses should be introduced to the kinds of service they can secure and be encouraged to browse, but it would not be a profitable use of time for them to study library reference and bibliographical methods.

b. Orientation to services. Services should be geared, insofar as is possible, to meet the needs of students. Brief orientation tours should be scheduled for each incoming group of students to acquaint them with the resources of the library, hours, lending regulations, and other elementary facts. After the first few classes have met and the student has some conception of what library work is expected of him, a second, more intensive orientation meeting can be held to discuss the organization of the library, including the availability and use of specialized research materials.

c. Library publications. Most students need considerable encouragement and guidance in order to make the most effective use of a library, but also it is to the students' and library's advantage to encourage and facilitate self-help. One of the most practical ways to stimulate self-help is to prepare a well-written library handbook for distribution to newcomers. Libraries of centers might also publish periodically analytical resumes, bibliographical bulletins, and other similar materials.

d. Involvement of institution's staff. The librarian should introduce each new staff or faculty member to the resources of the library. An individual tour gives the staff member an opportunity to learn about the scope of materials and their location, and it gives the librarian a means of becoming familiar with the staff member's specialized interests. An alert librarian, acquainted with a staff member's course work, research concerns, and other fields of interest, can call new materials to his attention, and help him in many other ways.

e. Use by officials and others. If a library serves public officials, special measures are required to acquaint them with its use and to help locate documents for their specific needs. Opening the library for reference use by outsiders may be of advantage in furthering the service objectives of the center. However, such action should be compatible with the center's primary goals of instruction, research, and consultation.

f. Reciprocal help. Services to staff and students from other institutions may be offered in reciprocity for the same services. Ordinarily, such increased demands on the library are more than offset by the advantages to the library's own users.

g. Preparation of in-service training materials. Some center libraries produce and maintain supplies of in-service training materials.

Such material is available to agencies that engage in their own in-service training, with little or no additional help from the center.

h. Reserve section. Books and documents in heavy demand should be placed in a separate section to ensure maximum availability. They may be checked out for short periods only and not allowed to be taken from the library, except possibly overnight.

4. Building the Collection

a. Four tasks. The development of a collection of books and other documents that effectively fulfills the needs of all users is the major objective of a library. Four separate tasks are required to develop and maintain a suitable collection:

(1) Determination of what should be included in the basic collection.

(2) Careful selection of current material

(3) Establishment of an effective acquisition system.

(4) Weeding out of materials that have lost current value.

b. A cooperative endeavor. A successful librarian will involve all members of a center's professional staff in the selection of documents. Inasmuch as the first priority in establishing the collection is the curriculum, both for degree and short-term programs, members of the instructional staff are the principal sources of help in compiling the basic list of publications to be acquired. Not all instructors evidence the same interest or energy in establishing or maintaining a working collection, however. It is the librarian's responsibility to provide a balance between overzealousness and indifference by ensuring that the most significant publications in all areas of instruction are available.

c. Selection of basic documents. What are known as "retrospective" materials should be acquired selectively for historical background and to support research. The following published bibliographic material may be of great help in identifying important published works and in building a basic collection:

Heady, Ferrel. Comparative Public Administration; a Selective Annotated Bibliography. 2nd edition, 1960. 98 pp. Published by the Institute of Public Administration, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, U.S.A.

Mars, David. Suggested Library in Public Administration: With 1964 Supplement. 1964. 203 pp. Published by the School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California, U.S.A.

Seckler-Hudson, Catheryn. Bibliography of Public Administration, Annotated. 4th Ed. 1953. 131 pp. Published by the American University Press, American University, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

United Nations, International Bibliography of Public Administration. N.S., 1957. 101 pp. Issued by the Division of Public Administration, The United Nations, New York, New York.

Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory; V.2, Arts, Humanities, Business and Social Sciences. Published by Bowker Co., 1180 Avenue of the Americas. New York, New York.

d. Addition of current publications. Once the basic collection is assembled, the most important continuing task is the identification and selection of current publications. Most of the documents will not be books sold through publisher's announcement, but reports and studies of various kinds issued in very small quantities and frequently unavailable shortly after publication. The following are excellent sources for leads for current publications of international interest:

Recent Publications on Governmental Problems. Issued irregularly by the Joint Reference Library, Public Administration Service, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois, 60637, U.S.A.

International Review of Administrative Sciences. Published quarterly in English, French, and Spanish editions by the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 25 rue de la Charite, Brussels, Belgium.

Public Administration. A quarterly issued by the Royal Institute of Public Administration, 24 Park Crescent, London, West 1. England.

Public Administration Review. A bimonthly issued by the American Society for Public Administration, 1329 Eighteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

Municipal Yearbook. Published annually by the International City Managers' Association, 1140 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

PAIS. Public Affairs Information Service, 11 W. 40th St., New York, N.Y., 10018, U.S.A.

e. Use accessions lists. Accessions lists produced by important libraries are also useful selection tools and are usually distributed without charge. Some schools of public administration and municipal reference libraries produce periodic lists of publications added to their collections. The centers in many countries issue journals or newsletters which refer to reports and studies issued in their own country. These lists and references are frequently the only means of identifying the non-commercial publications which form the basis of a center's working collection.

5. Acquisition of Documents

a. Decisions on acquisitions. The librarian will, in some cases, know whether a document appearing in one of these lists or mentioned in a journal should be acquired. In many cases, he will need guidance by the center's staff concerned with the subject. This guidance may be obtained through circulation of these lists among staff members or to a library committee for checking. Also, a special form may be used to inquire whether a specific document should be acquired. With limited book budgets, it is important to purchase documents likely to have relatively high use. This economy factor emphasizes the need to secure free as many documents as possible.

b. Responsibility for ordering. A professional librarian should be permitted to place orders directly and to establish personal contacts with whatever commercial sources offer the best service and to use all other available channels to secure documents at the best price. Processing orders through an institutional purchasing office involves delays, duplicate processing, and lack of accountability. Moreover, many other ways of acquiring specialized documents are available which a central office cannot handle.

c. Use of dealers. Orders for routine commercial publications are best placed with a dealer who is both knowledgeable and efficient. Most major cities, especially a country's capital, will have one or more. Competent and conscientious dealers often are handicapped by currency regulations which so restrict importation of foreign merchandise that the number of foreign publications available is extremely limited. This restriction is another reason, in addition to the fact that most dealers do not find it economically feasible to handle non-commercial publications, why it is essential to acquire as many documents as possible by soliciting exchanges and gifts.

d. Free acquisitions. If a library wishes free documents from other centers, and many other agencies as well, it will need to offer documents in exchange. For this purpose, a center's newsletters, yearbooks, journals, research reports, and other publications should be made available to the library, in multiple copies, for exchange with other institutions. Because all libraries receive some duplicate copies of publications which serve no useful purpose for them, such publications can be made available for exchange. Whatever is available should be listed systematically with a bibliographical description, and the list should be included with requests for priced publications from other institutions. The United States Information Service often provides free books.

e. Exchange by barter. A systematic exchange arrangement may take the form of a priced exchange, in which the monetary value is balanced or the number of pieces is balanced. Enterprising libraries in countries with a poor book market might capitalize on this situation by acquiring multiple copies of government documents or any kind of "fugitive" material, possibly even by purchase, and offering them in exchange to research libraries abroad, which frequently find such material nearly impossible to acquire through commercial sources.

f. Official documents. Documentary material such as annual reports, development plans, budgets, resource studies, organizational surveys, administrative manuals, new statutes, statistical compilations, directories, and similar items which form the basis of the working collection are frequently available for the asking. Form letters or postcards may be used in requesting known publications or to ask for materials on specific subjects. The request should state clearly that the library wishes to continue to receive publications but must be notified in advance if there is a charge. Ideally, publications will be distributed automatically, as issued, but many agencies do not maintain mailing lists, which means that each report or study must be requested individually. Letters sent under the name of the center's director are most effective. Members of staff should be encouraged to request the librarian to write for publications even if they know the agency or author. In his letter, the librarian could indicate the source of the request if such reference would expedite the acquisition.

g. Weeding of useless material. It is obvious that not everything available through free distribution is worth adding to a specialized collection. It is not at all obvious to many that much of what is added is of less than permanent value and eventually should be discarded. Useless publications on the shelves cost money to maintain and they impede the user by cluttering the shelves. The problem of what to discard must be resolved with the center's professional staff. The problem of how to discard may be more difficult. A planned and formally-approved procedure is essential.

h. Inventory control. Government-supported libraries in some countries are required to list and number consecutively each item added to the collections in bound ledgers as a permanent record of the library's holdings. The contents of this ledger, or accessions list, is supposed to correspond exactly to an inventory of the library's holdings when examined by the government auditor. If elimination of the accessions record is illegal, then material listed initially should be on selective basis omitting what librarians refer to as "ephemera." In any case, it should be possible to arrange for deletions from the record and to discard, or use for exchange purposes, publications no longer of value.

6. Cataloging the collection

The system of cataloging and locating documents is exceedingly important, because it determines the ability of the library user both (1) to identify and locate documents, and (2) to examine publications available on specific subjects. The recording of the order of receipt of documents and placing them on shelves in that order—a practice still followed in many unserviceable libraries—is of no value in meeting either of these two needs.

a. Identification of specific works. An effective cataloging system makes it possible for the library user to look at index files by author or title and then to proceed to a specific shelf in the library to procure the document. This method is referred to as "descriptive cataloging," and should be relatively simple in a center's library. The most important bibliographic information, from the standpoint of the reader, is that which appears on the title page. This information should form the basis of the "entry" with appropriate cross-references.

b. Location by subject. The system for cataloging by subject and location of works bearing on each subject on identifiable shelves is not so easily resolved for a specialized collection, even of limited size. Two approaches may be used, independently or jointly, which involve (1) arrangement of the collection, and (2) indexing the collection.

c. Selection of the system. A number of choices and combinations of cataloging systems are available:

(1) The subject classification devised and published for public administration libraries jointly by the Public Administration Service (PAS) and the American Library Association (ALA), is now somewhat out of date but basically well constructed and easily expanded. This work prepared by Sophia Glidden, entitled "A Library Classification for Public Administration" in 1942 (512 pages) formerly could be secured from the Public Administration Service, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois, 60637, U.S.A., but now probably is obtainable only through a service such as provided by University Microfilms. Its chief weakness is not its age but its complete omission of subjects once considered unrelated to public administration, such as psychology and mathematics. This omission means, of course, that a library adopting this classification will need to superimpose sections of another classification in certain subject areas.

(2) Most of the good qualities of the PAS/ALA classification and few of its weaknesses are combined in an adaptation of the Universal Decimal Classification published specifically for public administration collections. It was prepared in 1949 by A. Bucqué and bears the title:

> "Le système DECASEPEL, manuel pour l'organisation et l'emploi d'une documentation courante et rétrospective, concu d'après la Classification Décimale Universelle comme système de fiches à l'usage des administrations publiques." Sepeli & Co., (185 pages). It can be obtained from Sepeli & Co., Ghent, Belgium.

This adaptation is available only in French, but the original UDC has been published in several languages.

(3) The Dewey Decimal Classification, upon which the Universal Decimal Classification was based, is highly regarded for general library classification, but more difficult to apply than the PAS/ALA classification. It is distinctly inferior to the UDC in its treatment of problems peculiar to public administration. The two-volume 17th edition entitled "Dewey Decimal Classification and Relative Index" can be obtained from the Forrest Press, Lake Placid, New York, U.S.A.

(4) The Library of Congress classification is probably the best in existence for large research libraries. A number of center libraries in developing countries, also, are finding it quite satisfactory. They find it especially useful to purchase the Library of Congress printed cards, thus greatly simplifying their problems of cataloging. Its quarterly list of "Additions and Changes" also is most helpful.

d. Multisubject documents. Even the best subject classification is unable to arrange the collection in such a way as to locate a specific document under more than one subject. For this reason, it is important to index the collection by word or symbol, or both. A classified catalogue indexes the collection by means of a subject classification such as those described above. The advantage of the catalogue is that a single item may be listed under any number of subjects. Also, the catalogue is always available for consultation, although the books themselves may be on loan or temporarily relocated. There is another advantage to libraries serving readers of several linguistic backgrounds, namely, a logical arrangement using symbols is much easier for a subject specialist to comprehend and master than a conventional index of words and phrases in a foreign tongue.

e. Electronic retrieval. Recent developments in automatic data processing suggest that mechanical or electronic information retrieval may be both possible and economically feasible, on a limited scale. A number of libraries have experimented fairly successfully with equipment made available to them free of charge, or nearly so, in specialized subject fields. It would appear that those systems recently developed are not economically advantageous over traditional manual methods, but that they are able to perform a great many tasks not otherwise feasible. It is not recommended that a center purchase expensive electronic equipment, but it should take advantage of institutional equipment that may be available and of whatever data processing expertise available on its staff.

7. Film Library

A center's library is the natural place to serve as the depository and dispatching point for films, slides, microfilms, tape recorders, record players, and similar teaching aids, together with projection equipment.

a. Cataloging. Cooperation between the librarian and instructors can result in the development of substantial lists of films and slides for teaching purposes. By cataloging according to subject, use, and availability, instructors planning either an academic or a non-degree course can make selections. A number of educational organizations, publishers, and film companies supply catalogues of films available for rental, purchase, or free use.

b. Film collections. Some films warrant repeated use and should be purchased and stocked by the library. Many films can be secured free by resourceful effort.

c. Control of projection equipment. Library assistants may be easily taught how to operate the sound film projector, and thus avoid the damage resulting from use by inexperienced operators.

d. Microfilms. If microfilms are utilized, printing and reading equipment is also necessary.

8. Course Files

Some centers assign responsibility to their libraries for maintaining a confidential master file of course materials. Under this system, each instructor supplies the librarian with a complete set of syllabi, bibliographies, course discussion guides, problem assignments, handouts, and examinations. These are filed by course title and are kept locked. Only authorized instructors may consult the files, the purpose of which is to maintain information on what was covered in a course.

As personnel changes, this device provides an exceedingly valuable reference source. New instructors can benefit from the planning and experience of previous ones.

9. External Assistance

External sources of help may be found wherever well-organized libraries exist, if by "help" is meant advice and sympathetic understanding. Financial aid to libraries is also sometimes available. It may be included as part of an institutional grant or subsidy. As emphasized, many films can be secured for the asking. The director of a center has the responsibility of ensuring that library expenditures are taken into consideration in estimating program expenses and overhead costs of all projects. The librarian would find it very useful to join the American Library Association.

a. IIAS assistance. The International Institute of Administrative Sciences supplies bibliographic information on current items in development administration to members of its Working Groups of Schools and Institutes of Administration. Summaries of especially significant literature also are distributed in English, French, and Spanish.

b. Institution building assistance. The libraries of numerous centers have been developed or expanded as a part of assistance from the United Nations, the U.S. Agency for International Development, the British Ministry of Overseas Development, the French Ministry of Cooperation, the Ford Foundation, and other technical cooperation organizations. A number of professional librarians have been made available by the U.S. Peace Corps for consultation and assignment to libraries in those countries in which the Corps functions. With increased worldwide attention to the development of administrative capabilities, such assistance should become increasingly available for public administration libraries.

c. UNESCO assistance. A significant aid to library service in Asia, Africa, and Latin America is provided by UNESCO in the form of consultants, seminars, and conferences. UNESCO has sponsored model libraries and library schools, but its main concern relates to national library service, with secondary attention to specialized libraries.

d. Middle East regional advisor. Centers in the Middle East can benefit by the recent appointment by the Ford Foundation of a Regional Library Advisor to assist libraries in the Middle East. In April 1967, the Foundation sponsored a Public Administration Library Conference in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The Conference was concerned primarily with the selection of materials by libraries in the Middle East, and it was attended by representatives of the five countries served by the Beirut regional office of the Foundation.

Chapter X. ORGANIZATION, PERSONNEL, FACILITIES, AND SERVICES

Purpose. This chapter discusses various structural arrangements for centers, internal organization to accommodate the functions described in previous chapters, the development of adequate direction and staff, essential facilities, and common services.

1. Patterns of Organization

The organizational location of public administration centers varies considerably from country to country. They can be classified and placed into five general categories.

a. An organ of a ministry. The most limited type of center is that organized by a single ministry and serving only the personnel of that ministry. These centers may engage in "vestibule" pre-service training of new staff members immediately following their appointment, as well as the common forms of in-service training in supervision and agency methods and techniques. Ministries of local government or internal affairs often give training for field staff members and for employees of local governments. Some of the chapters of this Handbook have limited relevance to these specialized centers.

b. A central organ of government. More relevant to the purposes of the Handbook are the centers attached to the office of prime minister, president, governor, civil service commission, personnel agency, or a ministry of finance, which are regarded as central executive instruments. Centers normally are accorded breadth and prestige by their structural location. The closer the center is identified with the office of the chief executive, the greater the prospects of strong support for broad educational programs, including executive development of high-level officials. If they are not closely related in this manner, the centers may not be provided adequate funds for research or be fully utilized for advisory services.

c. A semi-independent government organ. A quasi-independent center resembles that described in the preceding paragraph, except that it has considerably greater autonomy. It may be governed by a council or board, and its director may be designated by the country's prime minister or president. Such a center is responsible to, but not a directly subordinate administrative organ of the government. The functions of such centers do not differ significantly from those attached to a central organ of government.

d. An autonomous organ. This type of center is separately chartered or established by statute, and thus clothed with independent educational functions and authority. Although it usually is supported wholly or primarily through government appropriations and is serving the needs of government, it has an independent governing body and authority to award degrees, in addition to other functions of comprehensive centers. It is, in essence, a chartered institution of higher education.

e. A constituent organ in a university. This type of center usually is designated a "school" or "institute," functioning as a constituent component of a university. Because of the distinctive functions performed for government, this kind of center should have special program authority and separate budgetary support in addition to its share of general university appropriations. The dean or director of such a center should be appointed by and responsible to the chief academic administrator of the university.

2. Recommended Organizational Criteria

Several requisites or criteria are essential if a center is to be effective.

a. A position of respect. The general location of the center in relation to government or a university must be such as to give it prestige, influence, and latitude for innovation in the fields for which it is designed. The center must have high stature in the eyes of agencies and persons served and be free from detailed academic, administrative, and financial controls that would stifle its initiative.

b. Responsibility of chief executive. Under above plans "c," "d," and "e," the prime minister or president should be the final spokesman for government regarding the functions and programs that the center should perform. To assist him in this role, his representative, such as a prime minister's secretary-general, secretary of the government, chief of civil cabinet, or chief personnel officer, may be designated as the liaison officer. Inasmuch as the center requires effective working relationships with various parts of the government, only a person speaking for the chief executive can ensure that these relationships are created and maintained. Under pattern "e," the role of government is somewhat reduced, but nevertheless significant.

c. Relation of the center to the university. The dean or director of a university center should report directly to the university's chief academic administrator. He should not be subordinate administratively to any other academic officer or collegial organ, except to the extent that academic functions of the center must conform to requirements applicable to the university as a whole.

d. Council or board. An advisory council or governing board of the center should consist of key governmental officials and other persons of national distinction. Such a board often gives prestige and support, as well as a substantive program contribution.

e. Head of center. The post of director or dean of the center should be of high rank and clothed with broad authority for the functions and program of work of the center. His rank should equate that of a permanent secretary, secretary-general, chef de cabinet, or dean in the American sense. A five-year appointment seems a minimum time for substantial achievement.

f. Flexible authority. The center's mandate should be sufficiently broad to enable its administrative head and board to develop, in consultation with government officials, its program and scope of operations as circumstances and needs warrant.

g. Responsible role in personnel planning. National planning and personnel agencies should enlist the center's assistance in conducting surveys of personnel requirements and in formulating educational and training programs to meet these requirements. The center has an important role in helping to create the administrative capabilities essential to implement development plans and programs and to perform other important tasks of government.

h. Budgetary autonomy. If it is an organ of government, the center should operate under a separate budget item controlled directly by the office of the chief executive. If the center is part of a university, its head should be accountable on budget matters to the chief academic administrator, not to a senate or other collegial academic organ.

3. University-based Centers

Ideally, centers with curricula leading to academic degrees should be a constituent part of a major university. Unfortunately, in many instances the incorporation of a center into an existing university could be fatal to it and therefore pattern "d," under Section 1 above, may suggest a compromise solution. The advantages and disadvantages of university attachment should be carefully weighed.

a. Advantages. Many important advantages can be derived if it is found feasible to develop the center as a constituent organ within the framework of a university:

(1) Academic esteem and recognition of the legitimacy of a degree are more readily achieved if a center is part of a university.

(2) The center may be able to draw on valuable resources of other schools and departments, such as economics, political science, law and engineering.

(3) The center, in turn, may provide courses for social science and professional students. Cooperative programs with schools of engineering, agriculture, education, law, and health and medicine may be developed.

(4) In response to modern needs, considerable restructuring of university knowledge and teaching responsibilities can be undertaken through joint and cooperative arrangements among professional, arts, and science schools. Such readjustment and collaborative efforts are difficult if the various components are not part of a single university.

(5) Only in a comprehensive university are the various fields of knowledge and capabilities in teaching and research available to solve complex problems of society and to provide the scope of education necessary for the public service.

b. Disadvantages. The inflexible character of traditional universities and reliance on collegial decision-making may create many obstacles for a center that forms a constituent element of a university. Some of these difficulties and incompatibilities have already been noted more specifically:

(1) The various faculties or schools in many universities are so autonomous that collaboration among them is difficult or impossible. The advantages of collaboration in curricular matters, scheduling of students, joint faculty appointments, cooperative research, and other programs cannot be secured in such cases.

(2) If a university lacks a strong executive with sufficient responsibility and authority to provide genuine leadership, faculty boards, councils, and senates are easily successful in preventing change. The practice in many universities of senior professors or department heads electing deans, and deans electing rectors or chancellors, is usually an effective guarantee against innovation.

(3) If faculty board decision-making is structured in terms of voting on curricular matters, courses, appointments, and promotions, minority cliques usually can control such actions, and persons unsympathetic with change usually can prevent or delay it.

(4) If a center is dependent on decisions of a collegial body drawn from varied disciplines and professions for approval of curricula, courses, appointments, and budgets, its hopes for success are likely to prove illusory.

c. Need for modernization. Among social institutions, universities probably are more in need of modernization and reorientation to serve society than any other publicly-supported endeavor. In many countries, major steps have been taken to foster leadership and initiative, on the one hand, and effective consultative or democratic processes in academic decision-making, on the other. The Introduction to the symposium on Education for Public Administration, published in 1966 by the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, describes the administrative shortcomings of North American, European, British, and other universities that need to be overcome to create a compatible environment for a professional school or institute.

4. Authorizing Charter or Statute

Every center needs statutory authorization. This authorization may be a specific act of the legislature, an executive order of the chief executive, a charter issued by a ministry of education, or legislation permitting the incorporation of non-profit educational institutions. Such a charter or statute provides the basis for a center's existence and for the conditions under which it functions. Such a charter or statute normally includes the following:

a. Creation of the center. It establishes the center, defines its purpose, and provides for a director, dean, advisory council, or other governing officers.

b. Governing board. The stated functions of the advisory council or governing board indicate what matters the center's head must present to it for initiative or approval. A board usually considers and recommends annual and long-term programs, reviews and approves budget requests, and approves or recommends the appointment of the head and assistant head of the center.

c. Implementation of criteria. The charter should ensure that the various criteria or standards listed in Section 2 above are adequately covered.

d. Means of financing. The manner by which the center assumes budgetary support for both capital and current purposes should be prescribed, as well as the director's authority to negotiate for and utilize nongovernmental funds.

5. Location of Center in University Structure

The functions and activities of an adequate center are so distinctive and important that, if part of a university, they should comprise a major unit in the institution's structure.

a. Comparable to other professional schools. Organically a center needs a status in a university comparable to a school or college of medicine, law, or engineering. It should have its own faculty, determine its courses, and select its students.

b. Experience with other arrangements. The chances of a center's programs being successful if assigned as a constituent part of a faculty of economics, law, or political science are shown by many such efforts to be very slim. Programs are usually very restricted.

c. Relation to social sciences. Cooperation between a center and a university's social science departments ought to be very close. Some social science instructors may be given joint appointments in the center and vice versa. The center's students should be able to take courses in the other areas.

d. Joint programs. The potential of joint or cooperative programs between a center and other professional schools is enormous. As examples, engineering students may be provided an option in public works administration, and health and medical students may be offered a curriculum in hospital administration.

5. Internal Organization of Center

The division of the center's work into departments, divisions, sections, or offices should be at the discretion of the center's head, subject to (a) review by its governing board, (b) approval by the appropriate government representative, or (c) approval by the university head.

a. Based on functions. The center's internal organization depends on the functions and activities undertaken. In a small center, the internal organization may be very simple, but in a large center, formal departments, and even faculties, may be required, as well as various administrative and service offices.

b. Academic departments. In a large center that conducts degree programs, a standard and acceptable scheme is the organization of various academic fields into departments, e.g., a department of public administration, a department of local government administration, a department of economic and social development, a department of community development, et cetera. In a smaller center, these academic fields may be labeled as "programs" or "specializations" in a department of academic studies. Selected faculty members of these departments may serve, if circumstances warrant, also as project directors, chief instructors, and special instructors in short-term, non-degree training projects. They also may have research, publication, and advisory responsibilities as may be arranged from time to time by the director.

c. Training division or staff college. Even though the center may draw on its academic departments for considerable assistance in conducting training projects, there are many functions in formulating and implementing a comprehensive non-degree training program. They require the establishment of a special department, division, staff college, or staff development center to plan, coordinate, and exercise general control over all training projects. The development of cooperative relationships and ad hoc arrangements for the conduct of training projects, in which the academic departments and the training division share, is a major administrative task of the center's director. The combination of a staff college and graduate school in a center has many advantages.

d. Research division. If institutional research programs are to be formulated and conducted, there must be a responsible unit of leadership, planning, and financial control for this function, headed by a research director. The manner of organizing and administering such a research program is described in Chapter VI. If institutional projects are not undertaken, a faculty committee to encourage research by individual members may be as much organization as is required.

e. Consultancy division. If a center engages in an extensive program of advisory services as described in Chapter VII, it may need to establish a special division to plan and supervise this work. Sometimes institutional research and advisory services are combined in the same division. At a minimum a chief administrative management officer, however he may be titled, is needed if any significant work of this type is conducted.

f. Publications department. As suggested in Chapter VIII, the publications work may be combined in the research department or organized as a separate publications division. Another option where a division is not warranted is the designation of a publications officer attached to the office of the director, who assists and facilitates the publications activities of the entire center, including the work on reproduction and distribution.

g. Library. The center's library ordinarily will constitute the equivalent of a separate department, headed by a chief librarian as proposed in Chapter IX.

h. Administration services. Managerial and auxiliary services may be organized in a variety of ways. One arrangement is to provide for a chief of administration or equivalent, responsible to the director for budgeting, accounting, personnel, supply, buildings and grounds, and the operation of other services of the center. Another and usually preferable structure is to divide these functions between two units, with an assistant director performing the tasks involving program planning, budgeting, and professional personnel, and with the administrative service functions being performed by an administrative officer.

i. Student services. As outlined in Chapters IV and V, both degree and non-degree programs entail a variety of student services, including recruitment, admissions, registration, counseling, placement, and alumni relations. Sometimes these student services are the responsibility of the general administrative office, but if the center is a large one a dean of students or director of student services is warranted. The operation of dining facilities, dormitories, bookstores, and other auxiliary services can best be placed under the administrative officer. Student unions or associations often operate some of these services.

j. Extramural operations. To be avoided is the concept prevalent in many traditional universities of organizing non-academic work in a university-wide division called "extramural" or "extension." Such an arrangement for professional fields such as medicine, public administration, and agriculture is seldom successful. For successful operations, reliance must be placed on persons of high repute in their professional fields. In each field, the training, research, and service activities are interrelated with and complement the academic course. Representatives of government agencies normally wish to cooperate directly with the staff members in whom they have gained confidence just as practicing physicians wish to work with teachers in medicine and not with an extramural department directed by laymen.

6. Administrative Authority and Accountability

Methods of administration and decision-making in universities and centers currently are under severe criticism. Both students and members of faculties are asking to have a greater role and to have a vote in councils, committees, and other forums. In various places in this

Handbook, reference is made to processes of planning and administration that involve wide consultation and participation. The assumptions underlying these proposals may be summarized as follows:

a. Leadership and accountability. Responsibility and democratic processes are maximized if initiative is placed in the hands of individuals, rather than collegial organs, to develop proposals and negotiate decisions, in consultation with persons affected or capable of making a contribution. Thus, the main channel of authority and accountability flows from a governing board or chief university administrator to the director of a center, to department and division heads, and to other officers and staff members. The job at each level is to enlist and facilitate consultation and participation of instructors, non-academic staff, students, officials, and others concerned or capable of giving advice.

b. Collegial organs. Senates, faculty boards, and staff committees can play a most constructive role if they serve as forums for exchange of ideas, advocacy of change, resolution of policy issues, and development of corporate esprit. While matters of administration and finance may be debated, they should not be resolved in such a forum. A collegial group that can reach agreement by wide consensus without formal voting will be especially successful. Voting creates division, cliques, discord. The waste of energies and dissension resulting from faculty groups endeavoring to reach votes on a myriad of administrative and often trivial matters is enormous. Centers need to apply to their own operations the principles of organization and management they espouse in the classroom.

c. Reviewable at higher level. The most effective way to keep actions responsible and democratic is the doctrine that any decision or agreement reached at a lower level—either by an administrative or program officer or a faculty or student group—is reviewable at a higher level. In practice, under such a system, which fosters responsible participation, the resolution of issues at lower levels will remain unchallenged, resulting in few matters being brought up for reconsideration. Realization that a recommendation (decision) may be reviewed on the basis that it is insufficiently matured or coordinated discourages impulsive action. It also encourages the referral of proposals to higher level when policy aspects or jurisdiction is unclear.

d. Consultative processes. A center's officers thus have a major responsibility to develop both policy and procedure to facilitate consultation and participation. Available measures include:

(1) Circulation of information among staff, students, and others, enabling them to know what is happening or being proposed.

(2) Staging of staff meetings, faculty meetings, student meetings, and other forums for the consideration of matters of wide concern.

(3) Circulation of drafts of administrative issuances, suggested procedures, bulletins, and other proposals for review and comment, perhaps for discussion at a collegial meeting.

(4) Fostering of meetings of faculty and student groups having common problems.

(5) Participation of student representatives in faculty organs and staff committees.

(6) Maintenance of the "open door policy" which encourages staff members and students to make suggestions or file complaints with department and division heads and the director.

e. Negotiation. Almost all decisions a center needs to make are administrative, not statutory in character. They call for good staff work to develop practical and valid solutions. They require negotiation with various persons and groups, usually entailing modification and compromise as new viewpoints are assessed and consequences identified. A least effective way to achieve rational decisions is to present issues, without warning, to a faculty board or student association and call for a vote. Presentation of a proposed policy or appointment at a collegial group may be desirable, but it is the final step in a series of negotiations, not the first. For instance, a most primitive and often disastrous practice common in some university systems is to place final authority in faculty members to call a meeting and, without this process of initiative and negotiation by top officers, to stage an election of a department head or dean.

f. Multinational integration. Many centers with staff from various national backgrounds have an especial challenge in molding a compatible team. Different traditions, assumptions, and values must be accommodated and integrated. The director and each staff person have a responsibility for appreciating cultural differences and the essentiality of assimilating all members into the new group of the center. Consideration of goals, concepts, principles, responsibility, authority, policy formation, and decision processes become important questions for staff meetings and informal discussions.

7. Development of an Adequate Staff

Because the success of a center is determined largely by the quality of its staff, substantial time of its director should be devoted to the recruitment and training of personnel.

a. The director. The head of a center, whether called a dean, director, executive director, or by some other title, should possess an exceptional combination of intellectual acumen, administrative competence, promotional ability, commitment to public service, and a sense of humor. Hopefully such a person can be found with superior academic qualifications, but a person without an advanced degree but possessing these other qualifications will be far better than an academic person who lacks important qualities.

b. Assistant director. Every center should have a deputy, associate, or assistant director to work with the director in the performance of his many tasks. In large centers, two or more assistants may be required. Inasmuch as the top assistant will act in the absence of the director, his appointment should be approved by the governing authority. The same kind of qualities of the director, but in a complementary way, are needed in the assistants.

c. Department and division heads. These persons need to be specialists in their respective fields, but with leadership and aptitudes relevant to their work. An innovative spirit is much to be desired, because everything a center does must be innovative if it is to fit the developing needs of the country. Department heads should be appointed by and serve at the discretion of the director. In the appointment of heads of academic departments, extensive consultation by the director with members of the faculty of the department is especially desirable. To be avoided like the plague is any system in which a faculty board elects a department head or dean. Enlistment of the best prospect is an act of highest administrative significance and calls for extensive search and negotiation to find a person who is both exceptionally qualified and acceptable to all, or nearly all, persons concerned.

d. Senior professional staff. Senior professional staff members normally lend prestige to a new center, give it the wisdom of their experience, and attract the initial clientele necessary for the center's survival. However, there is always a danger that senior educators and administrators will be tradition-bound, and their presence in the center may have a stultifying effect on its programs. As proposed in Chapter IV resourceful and flexible methods should be used in the recruitment of persons for senior professional posts.

e. Junior professional staff. The junior professional staff members usually hold the key to viable institution building. They should be selected with great care and provided with the best of training at home or abroad for the roles they are expected to play, and as they assume their roles in the center, they should have the assistance and support of senior staff members. The promise of their potential will be fully realized only if they remain committed for a work career at the center, despite opposition from some seniors who sometimes feel threatened by better educated juniors and despite the lure of attractive opportunities available to them elsewhere.

f. Administrative, clerical, and custodial staff members. Capable persons in all administrative, clerical, and custodial positions are likewise important in the effective operation of a center. The value of the center's training and advice is judged, at least in part, by the image it projects of being well administered. Maintenance of buildings, grounds, and equipment, quality of food and dormitory services, accuracy and speed in keeping official records and producing reports, level of library services, operation of the telephone system, and other activities create a deep and lasting impression of either efficiency or of a shoddy operation. There is always question of the proportion of the budget to be spent for these non-teaching and research operations, and inevitably they receive the first brunt of reduced funds. Practices in respect to secretarial and clerical employees, for example, vary widely. Nearly one third of the centers canvassed believe a 1:4 ratio of secretarial and clerical employees to professional staff would be sufficient. A somewhat smaller number favor a ratio of 1:2. A few institutions favor a higher ratio than 1:2, but none less than 1:4. A center engaged in extensive research, service, and publications work will need a higher ratio than one confined to teaching.

g. Shortage of qualified persons. Centers everywhere report staff shortages and difficulty in finding persons qualified for these varied tasks. This shortage of instructors exists even in the most economically developed countries with the most extensive graduate programs in public administration and related public service fields. Countries in which the universities have never produced graduates with professional or postgraduate education in the fields required must take exceptional measures to find and develop staff with relevant preparation. Most of the persons a center seeks will also be in great demand for government and other positions. It is obvious that to meet staff requirements, institutions must appoint most individuals with less than ideal qualifications, but who have the best combination of education, experience, aptitude, and personal qualities.

h. Inducement for employment. A number of preconditions are essential if a center is to compete effectively for scarce personnel.

(1) A center needs to have established itself as an institution worthy of the respect and confidence of government, educational bodies, and other agencies.

(2) It must have effective leadership. The quality of the director and department heads determines more than any other factor the ability of a center to attract additional talent.

(3) It must be well organized and administered, serving as a model of the managerial practices that it espouses.

(4) Opportunity for a career, with advancement based on performance, is another requirement.

(5) Salary levels should be comparable to those which the person can secure in government or other employment. Inasmuch as the work of an instructor, researcher, or expert consultant in advanced fields requires, on the whole, broader qualifications than administrative work in government, a case can be made that the salaries of a center should be higher than those in government.

(6) A formal system of personnel administration gives evidence that a center is serious about its personnel practices. This sytem provides for a classification of positions, a salary plan, methods of appointment and promotion, handling of grievances, discipline and removal, and retirement and other benefits.

i. Workloads. A number of unique factors govern the setting of equitable workloads for the staff of centers. Every post is different and entails a special combination of tasks dependent on the persons' competences, experience, and ability to respond to the center's needs. A senior instructor may apply half of his time to conducting non-degree projects, one-quarter to academic instruction, and the remainder to research and consultancy, with extra hours on administration. Another may be adaptable to only academic teaching and tutorial work. This feature of a center's work makes inapplicable traditional formuli of course loads or hours of classroom and tutorial instruction, which some universities endeavor to impose on centers. The solution is to require each instructor and other staff members to prepare an individual work program in which he shows his activities and time for the total year. This practice facilitates the equalization of workloads. Staff members of centers have far more demands on their time than do instructors in traditional fields.

j. Recruitment. The discovery, evaluation, and procurement of professional staff require intensive time and effort. There are no quick methods, inasmuch as there is no natural supply of candidates. Prospects may be found within government, within universities, private agencies, assigned abroad, and sometimes among persons who are seeking employment.

(1) Insofar as possible, vacancies should be filled by the use of valid, open, competitive recruitment, with examinations if feasible. Sometimes the problem is to find even one person who meets the minimum specifications. Reference checks and assessment of previous performance are invaluable. An invitation extended to a prospect to give a lecture or hold a discussion with faculty and students is a useful means of evaluation.

(2) Probably most posts are filled as a result of solicitation by the director of the center to persons who may know of likely prospects. The director needs to be in contact with as many persons as possible who are likely to know of prospective candidates for the specific post. Advertising is another effective means. A statement describing the position, duties, tasks, and the qualifications desired should be prepared and disseminated.

(3) Securing a staff member for a temporary period of a year or two by secondment from government is an important way to develop resources. If the government can continue to pay the salary of the person during this period, some pay and budget problems are avoided. Otherwise, the center should equate his government salary.

(4) In the absence of a fully qualified prospect, a position can be made a temporary one, or filled on a term basis of a year or two. Initial academic appointments are usually on a term basis.

(5) Occasionally, it is possible to find someone in government who has reached retirement age and who has both flexibility of youth and familiarity with latest administrative developments. Such persons can be appointed on a year-to-year basis.

(6) Most centers rely heavily on part-time instructors, consisting of officials whose agencies permit them to engage in this type of extra activity. The numbers of part-time instructors range from only a few in some cases to sixty at one institute. The "l'ecoles d'administrations" have tended to rely largely on this method. These appointments are reported to be successful if the person possesses a good academic background and teaching abilities. A center must be free to dismiss an unsatisfactory instructor and to search continuously for those persons most competent.

k. Long-term plan. For its basic staff, a center obviously needs some persons who have a continuing commitment to it. These persons may take a considerable period to recruit and develop; hence the possible need for heavy temporary reliance on short-term appointments, use of persons from other countries, secondment, and part-timers.

(1) A long-term plan for the recruitment and development of staff is essential in order to work systematically to produce a staff that five years hence will be able to carry major professional responsibilities. Chapter IV suggests ways to develop competence in instruction.

(2) Pending the acquisition of permanent staff, a center may rely on external assistance both to hold temporary appointments and to help in staff development.

(3) Inevitably, many of the qualifications and much of the knowledge required by instructors and other staff members must be acquired on the job. The long-term recruitment plan should include a system for the development of competences by all staff, short-term or part-time as well as permanent.

(4) Because one or more persons always should be in training at a university or institute, a center requires more persons on its rolls than it has permanent posts.

(5) Observational tours and attendance at appropriate conferences may be the extent of formal training feasible in case of directors, department heads, and senior professional staff members, but the other staff elements of a center require specific training. Administrative, clerical, and custodial employees should be offered formal training to improve their performance, acquire new skills, and qualify for promotion. Junior staff members, who normally would possess their undergraduate degrees when selected, must be encouraged to undertake additional studies in their special areas.

8. Plant and Equipment

Just any old building or unplanned facility does not suffice for a center. It is as important for a center to have accommodations suitable for its functions as it is for a government structure or business enterprise for their functions.

a. Location. There are a number of advantages and some disadvantages in locating a center closely accessible to the seat of government.

(1) If a center's programs stress in-service, on-the-job training, both students and part-time instructors should be able to move freely from home, to office, and to the center.

(2) However, most government employees—national as well as local—are stationed outside of the capital, and their training needs should not be neglected.

(3) If a center has a large residential student body of either degree or non-degree students, there are fewer distractions if located away from the heart of the capital or other major city.

(4) To be avoided is a site in a rural area removed from the benefits of existing infrastructure, housing, shopping, and cultural amenities. Heavy unnecessary expense and inconvenience have been incurred by the construction of universities and institutes in remote areas. Moreover, the staff of such institutions need to be related to the real world, not relegated to a social as well as an intellectual ivory tower.

(5) If a center is part of a university, or even if it is not, there are many favorable opportunities in being located on or adjacent to the main campus. If the university is not accessible to the center's clientele, the center may need its own campus.

(6) These factors of cost of construction, ease of access for those who use the center, adequacy of space, including area for subsequent expansion, convenience of the staff, and the achievement of an attractive, serviceable plant all need to be considered.

b. Buildings. The scope of facilities required obviously depends on the scope and scale of operations.

(1) A small center without residential programs may find that one sizable building or two or three smaller ones may suffice.

(2) A major center conducting the functions described in previous chapters may require a dozen or more buildings: faculty offices, teaching and meeting rooms, an auditorium, student housing, staff residences, dining quarters, social and religious facilities, an administration building, a library, a conference center, buildings and grounds workshops, recreational facilities, and other structures.

(3) The layout of buildings should ensure ready, accessibility, suitable functional relationships, homogeneity, and attractive design. A campus should be planned by expert planners and architects, as is done in any urban development.

(4) Each building, likewise, should be designed to fulfill its specific functions. This process starts with the development of specifications by the director and staff of the center. They must determine the character, size, number, and relationship of rooms; this is not the function of the architect. The specific elements of layout determine whether a room will serve a given teaching function well, but most seminar, lecture, and meeting areas seem to have been designed by persons who never used such facilities.

(5) In planning new buildings, the director should visit other comparable structures to learn about their advantages and disadvantages.

(6) In cold climates, adequate central heating is essential. Learning does not thrive with cold hands and feet. Similarly, in tropical climates, buildings may be designed to provide a shield from the sun. Ventilation equipment and, if circumstances permit, air conditioning, may be a standard requirement. Library collections require special protection from the elements and air conditioning treatment.

(7) If electric power interruptions are common, it may be advisable to install auxiliary generators to serve on a standby basis. Sometimes special water treatment and pumping facilities are needed.

(8) If the center is assigned to buildings originally designed for other purposes, the need for renovation and adaptation to the new functions should be pressed. There is no economy in incurring large operating expenditures for program handicapped by inappropriate quarters.

c. Housing. Many centers may find that a major element of their physical plant should consist of housing. The extent of special housing depends on the nature of the community in which the center is located.

(1) Unless the center is located in or adjacent to an urban community, the center may need to provide dwellings for most or all of its professional staff members. The dwellings might consist of single family houses and duplex houses for the larger families or more senior staff members, and apartments for smaller family units and junior members.

(2) Administrative, clerical, and custodial employees can usually find quarters in surrounding areas, but a few of them need to be available for emergency duty and thus should be quartered on the campus.

(3) All or a major portion of full-time degree students normally are housed in student dormitories or residence halls. The center may provide special housing for married students. A regular inspection of student facilities is essential to ensure they are maintained according to prescribed standards.

(4) Short-term training of a week to several months duration is greatly advantaged if the participants can be housed and fed at the center. Such arrangements are especially feasible for a center if the rooms can be filled during most of the year by successive groups of participants.

(5) Finally, there are the housing facilities for persons strictly transient in their duration of stay at the center, namely, official guests or persons attending conferences no longer than several days. For this purpose guest facilities or a conference center are ideal.

d. Equipment and supplies. A center needs a variety of special equipment for its classrooms, workshops, and other instructional facilities.

(1) As indicated in Section V, small movable tables and comfortable chairs are necessary in advanced in-service training and executive development programs.

(2) Budgetary provision is also required for projectors, easels, screens, blackboards, and other visual aids. Calculators and at least a small computer are necessities.

(3) The library is a large consumer of special equipment and documents.

(4) Reproduction and copying equipment is required to prepare course materials and to fulfill the publication needs described in Chapter VIII. The modern photocopy equipment now is very satisfactory.

(5) A center's procurement system should facilitate the development of suitable specifications and the identification of suppliers who can provide these special program items and subsequent repair and maintenance services.

(6) The location of some centers requires them to supply regular or occasional transport services. Some access to non-commerical transport may be required by staff engaged in field research and consultancy services.

9. Student Facilities and Services

a. Food services. Food services range from snack bars to formal dining rooms. Unless the surrounding community can provide the service, the dining halls must be adequate to feed all students living in the dormitories, and perhaps also to feed others. Transient accommodations for short-term visitors may include dining facilities both for their use and for staff entertainment. Food also may be served at snack bars which usually constitute important social gathering places. If commercial retail food stores are inadequate, the center may provide a commissary for the sale of basic foodstuffs. In some centers, student organizations operate snack bars and student dining services in order to provide low-cost meals, and perhaps to make some profit to finance student welfare activities.

b. Recreational and physical education facilities. The extent of recreational and physical education facilities needed by a center depends greatly on the nature of its programs and on its relationship to a university. At a minimum, a center must provide social rooms for its students and its staff. They may be quite simple, or they can be quite elaborate, such as a student union building or a faculty club. If there is a full-time residential program, the center should consider playing fields, tennis courts, handball and squash courts and other specialized facilities. A swimming pool in a warm climate is a very popular addition for both students and staff members.

c. Health services. Health facilities may range from a first aid room served by a part-time nurse to a well-equipped hospital adequately staffed by doctors, if the center is part of a university system. A large residential center should have, as a minimum, a full-time nurse and a treatment room, plus one or two beds for temporary in-patients. In addition to first aid treatment, the health services should include routine innoculations and vaccinations.

d. Religious facilities. If the center is of a residential character and if the community or the university does not provide adequate facilities for religious activities, rooms may be set aside or a separate structure authorized by private subscription for worship purposes. If the community has diverse religious groups, it may be necessary to support the development of religious or prayer facilities, for example, for both Moslems and Christians. The appropriate role of a center's staff in religious services necessarily varies with the mores of the society.

e. Books, supplies, and personal effects. Especially if academic programs are offered, it is common practice for a center, or the university of which it is a part, to operate a book and supply store. This provides students and staff with a convenient means of purchasing textbooks, classroom supplies, personal items such as toilet articles, food, beverages, confectioneries, and even larger items such as sports equipment, clothing, or radios.

10. Student Extracurricular Activities

Modest social activities contribute to the effectiveness of short-term non-degree programs and conferences. Students in full-time residence require a much wider variety of activities beyond the formal work of their programs.

a. Recreation. Physical education, games, and contests have educational value as well as contribute to physical health.

b. Student government. Students in degree programs normally feel the need for a self-governing association or student union. Such an organization includes all interested students who adopt bylaws, elect officers, and develop programs. The student government may manage social events and various student affairs, operate some student services, and make representations to the center's authorities on certain policy matters. Through such an association or union, administrative officers of the center may arrange for student participation in curriculum development, academic procedures, student services, admissions screening, and meetings with faculty groups on common academic concerns.

c. Social and interest groups. Students also may organize themselves into smaller societies that are primarily social groups, providing companionship among the members, sponsoring such events as dances, parties, picnics, or athletic events. They may establish special interest groups, based on areas of study, special intellectual concerns, or for community service. They may form a debating society or a musical organization. Local chapters of honor or professional societies may be initiated. A center should exercise only such control and surveillance over student organizations as is necessary to ensure that their activities are compatible with its purposes.

d. Student events. Working through social and interest groups or otherwise, students may participate in various events that they initiate or that are provided by the center. These include public discussions led by outside speakers, dramatic productions, musical performances, dinners, receptions for distinguished visitors, and intergroup debating and athletic contests. Such activities may be part of a university-wide program or concentrated within a center. In many of them, the center's staff members may participate with the students on an equal basis.

e. Student publications. Student publications may take a variety of forms. Most closely related to a center's formal programs is the publication of student course papers and articles, either by limited reproduction within the center or by aid in securing acceptance for publication in more widely-circulated professional journals. The students at a center may participate in issuing a university-wide student newspaper. More narrowly oriented, they may issue a newsletter containing current events only of special interest to themselves or to the field of public administration; or they may be involved in publishing a formal journal of public administration. A center's total publication program is considered in Chapter VIII.

Chapter XI. BUDGETING AND FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

Purpose. This chapter describes budgeting as a means of planning, negotiating, and managing the use of financial resources to accomplish a center's objectives. It distinguishes between funds derived from varied sources for general and restricted (special fund) purposes, and between capital (plant and equipment) purposes and current operations. The role of accounting, reporting, and auditing for financial control and management is outlined.

1. Elements in Budgetary and Financial Management

Planning and managing the resources of a center entail a series of interacting processes and recognition of the distinctive purposes of various funds.

a. Key financial steps. The following are some of the principal steps for which carefully developed procedures are essential, irrespective of the size of the center:

(1) Preparation of a long-term financial plan for the development of the center covering both current and capital funds.

(2) Identification of all sources of funds and other resources to be tapped in financing the center and its programs.

(3) Preparation of an annual budget, with related budgets for all separate funds or resources, including capital funds.

(4) Revision of expenditure programs, as necessary, immediately after appropriations or estimates are approved by the appropriating authority if less than requested.

(5) Design and preparation of periodic reports to show amount and rate of expenditures in relation to appropriations for each fund, program, or project.

(6) Installation of a system of accounts to provide the information required for financial reports and to record and control financial transactions.

(7) Establishment of bank accounts and systems for anticipating, receiving, recording, depositing, and accounting for the center's monies.

(8) Utilization of forms and defined procedures for personnel appointments, requisitions, purchase orders, contracts, expenditures, and other transactions to incur, control, account for, and audit obligations and expenditures.

(9) Preparation of accounting reports and financial statements covering monies due and received and expenditures obligated and paid, and assets and liabilities.

(10) Post audit of accounts

b. Financial responsibilities. If the center is a constituent unit of the government or of a university, it may be governed by standard fiscal procedures. A central fiscal office may perform numerous financial functions on behalf of the center.

(1) Regardless of the overall fiscal structure, the center's director, accountable to a finance committee and governing body, is immediately responsible for its budgetary and financial management. Steps 1 through 4 in the above checklist are not only his responsibility, but he personally must devote much time to them, no matter how competent a budget, fiscal, or business officer he may have.

(2) Every center requires some kind of administrative, business, and/or finance officer to ensure that the receipt and handling of funds and the commitment and approval of expenditures are thoroughly regular. The finance officer may work under supervision of an assistant director for administration or equivalent, although on basic matters the director must be his own budget officer. He must defend and negotiate budget requests. The center's finance office not only helps with steps 1 through 5, but it also plays a significant role in steps 5 to 9.

(3) In large centers, accountability for managing programs and projects within authorized budgets should be delegated to the heads of the program divisions or to persons in charge of projects. These persons should prepare the initial work programs and budget estimates.

(4) If the center's accounts are maintained in a central office of government or a university, the financial officer of the center usually will need to prepare the detailed budget control reports for use of department and division heads from accounting information provided by the central office. He also should maintain sufficient files or records to enable him to verify the accuracy of the accounting information, perhaps including the maintenance of a complete set of memorandum records.

c. The basic general fund. Usually a center will derive a major part of its resources from a direct government appropriation or allocation, or as part of the budget of a university. This element of funding may be called the basic general fund. The center may receive also separate allocations for special purposes, which must be accounted for separately.

d. Special funds. Centers secure special funds through grants, contracts, or fees for services which usually are restricted to expenditures for specific purposes. Each such fund, including a miscellaneous fund consisting of items which can be combined, requires a separate account. A separate definitive budget and separate expenditure reports are required for each such fund.

e. Miscellaneous receipts. In addition to special appropriations, grants, and contracts, the center may receive fees and tuition payments, especially if it conducts academic programs. Whether these receipts are retained by the center and used as a special budgetary resource or deposited as income to the government or university is a matter greatly affecting a center's degree of flexibility.

f. Fees for services. Fees charged for non-degree courses, consultancy services, sale of publications, and similar activities should be credited to the center and used to help finance such work. The same principle applies to the operation of dining facilities, residence halls, commissaries, and other student and faculty services. Usually the aim is to operate these facilities on a self-financing basis.

g. Assistance in kind. Gifts and grants may be "in kind," such as classroom equipment and books or contributed personnel. These forms of assistance may not appear on any financial record, but they are the equivalent of income in a true sense. The provision of various services through technical assistance is a major source of income to some centers. Whether the center should charge a fee for consultancy services or training projects conducted by technical assistance personnel whose services are free to the center is debatable. Because centers usually are starved for funds, they need to collect any income that is justifiable and legitimate.

2. Preparation of the Budget

Many centers produce budgets that are a mixture of objects of expenditure, activities, projects, and other heterogeneous items. Expenditure estimates often are unrelated to program and often cover only the basic fund. A center obviously needs to follow the general format prescribed by its government or university. Generally the requirements are sufficiently broad or unspecified to enable the center to develop the details as it sees fit. A carefully prepared, comprehensive budget provides the foundation for effective administration. A budget that is convincing is more likely to command confidence than one that is confusing.

a. The annual operating budget. The annual operating budget should be coordinated carefully with the long-range work program and development plan. Whereas the long-term plans might indicate the goals to be achieved, in general terms, the annual operating budget must be quite specific regarding expenditures for the fiscal year. Nevertheless, the long-range work plan is one of the most important documents providing policy guidance to persons formulating the operating budget. As described later, the operating expenditure program must be coordinated also with the capital budget in order to mesh the work programs with new facilities as they become available.

b. Program elements. In recent years, progressive governments and other organizations have abandoned the old "line item" budget system, presenting each item of expenditure or classifying items by objects, in favor of estimates of cost for program elements. The validity of a budget request is far more evident if the cost of each program, activity, project, or operation is shown. Major program elements of a center have been described in previous chapters. The following is an illustrative list:

(1) Academic instruction
(2) Non-degree training program
(3) Conference program
(4) Individual research, field study, and consultation
(5) Institutional research program
(6) Institutional advisory service program
(7) Publications program
(8) Library and reference services
(9) Student services
(10) Food and housing services
(11) Fellowships-student aid
(12) Operation of buildings and grounds
(13) Administration and supporting services

c. Budget format. In the basic budget, the estimated expenditures for each program element might be shown compared with the estimate for the current year and the actual for the previous year as follows:

Budget Estimates for Fiscal Year 1969

Program Elements	Actual for F.Y. 1967	Estimate for F.Y. 1968	Request for F.Y. 1969
Academic instruction			
Non-degree training			
Etc.			

Each program should be described and units of performance shown. For example, the number of degree students (in full-time equivalents) and cost per student provide comparisons for the years covered by the budget estimates. These units of work must be carefully developed for each program element. This emphasis on performance is the reason why this type of budget is known also as a "performance budget." A program budget is invaluable to the center in helping it to use resources in the most productive way, as well as to demonstrate to central budget authorities the merit of the requests.

d. Budget work sheets. The details of expenditure for each program are prepared on work sheets. If the central budget authority desires, these detailed objects of expenditure can be summarized under each program, as for example:

(1) Personal services
(2) Supplies and materials
(3) Equipment
(4) Other costs

e. Estimated income. Income produced by activity of the center either may be credited to the center, thus reducing the external funds required, or it may be treated as general income by the government or university, thus requiring appropriation of the entire basic budget. The first alternative provides inducement to the staff members to be enterprising. In either case, however, the center must develop a schedule of income generated, covering tuition, fees, sales, and other receipts for services. This list excludes receipts for special funds or projects, which are the sources of income for those funds and must be credited to them. The schedule of general fund income should show estimates for the new budget year, for the current year, and actual income produced for the previous year.

f. Special fund budgets. The same schedule of estimates should be made for proposed expenditures under each fund belonging to the center. Most special funds relate to a single activity or project, e.g., a grant to send a staff member abroad for training, a gift for library acquisitions, a research or consultancy project, vacation internship stipends for students, or an allocation for a training project. The accompanying form illustrates how such special budgets may be prepared, together with estimates of income availability. These special budgets often require revision during the period of their execution.

g. The center's comprehensive budget. The basic and special budgets may be consolidated into a comprehensive schedule as illustrated by Appendix J. Such a schedule provides a picture of total planned expenditures for the center, exclusive of any capital expenditures outside of the operating budget. Its importance in planning and management is obvious.

h. Balancing income and expenditures. The more special funds a center has, the more difficult is its financial management. If a temporary special fund can be taken up by the basic budget, operations can be expanded and budget deficits avoided. However, if the income flowing into special funds unexpectedly ends, the center may be faced with a level of commitments it cannot easily reduce. There should be a clear understanding between the center and the source of general funds in respect to long-term objectives and the extent to which general appropriations will absorb costs initially financed by special grants. Another device is to create a reserve fund for use in critical periods, perhaps from accumulated savings achieved through skillful negotiation of grants. Many governments and universities normally do not permit this device, but it is a very prudent arrangement if feasible.

3. Budget Execution

The director's principal management task is to conduct the work program effectively within budgeted resources. This task entails several financial processes:

a. Adjustment of budget to available funds. Two kinds of revisions are required after appropriations or allocations are determined finally. If the available funds differ in amount from the budget requests, the basic budget requires revision. The amounts assigned to each program element become the control figures. Moreover, there inevitably will be some changes in the amounts of special funds available, as precise balances carried over to the new year become known, as new funds are negotiated, or as changes occur in income-producing activity. In each case, the special fund budget must be revised if changes are indicated. These new figures become the authorized totals for posting to the budget accounts.

b. Systems of accounts. The government or university accounting office may not wish to establish subaccounts for each program element, in which case, the center may do so. However, such a distribution of charges should be attempted only if the center has a very capable finance office, inasmuch as it entails time-consuming accounting work. Some subaccounts are essential, such as operation of dining facilities and residences. These operations often are financed by revolving funds, which are credited with payments received and charged with expenses incurred.

c. Charges to accounts. The budget accounts are charged (debited) with salaries and wages paid, commodities purchased, and all other expenditures allocable to cost items.

(1) Personnel actions (initial appointment or revision of appointment documents) provide the basis for charging personal services. If the staff member is scheduled to work on more than one program element, his salary is divided according to the proportion of time allocable to each. If a staff member on the basic budget payroll devotes unallocated time to a special fund project, such as a consultancy job, he should record the time and provide the finance officer with a monthly statement, in order that the project may be charged and the basic general fund credited.

(2) Purchases made through requisitions and purchase orders are preaudited when the invoice is received to ascertain whether the commodities or services were, in fact, provided. Vouchers for payment covering approved invoices provide the instruments for posting expenditures. These vouchers are coded with the program element to be charged. If the purchase is not allocated to a specific program, it is charged to administration or other overhead account. At the end of a fiscal year, a distribution of costs for general supplies and similar items utilized on all programs can be distributed among them by journal voucher.

(3) Alternative to accounting for program elements. If accounts are not divided by program elements, but only by appropriation categories, there is another way of developing a year-end report on program costs. Each staff member can estimate the percentage of his time devoted to each program, and the finance officer can then compute the cost of personal services for each program. He can use the amount of personnel cost or some other method to estimate the distribution of other costs, thus producing a report showing costs related to the original budget estimate for each program. Such a report would show also work accomplished and other performance data.

d. Disbursement vs. accrual accounting. Centers desiring accurate accounting controls maintain their accounts on an accrual basis. This concept means that they charge all obligations or commitments to the accounts when made, not at the time of actual expenditure or disbursement.

For example, a purchase order or contract for services is treated as an obligation, but when payment is made, the expenditure column of the ledger is posted and the obligation thus liquidated or reduced, at all times enabling the center to know its unobligated as well as its unexpended balance. Not many educational institutions employ this detailed control.

e. Monthly report of budget performance. At the close of each month, the center's finance officer should provide the director and appropriate program heads with budget performance reports. Appendix K is an example. This form is designed for special funds, but it is usable also for basic budget expenditures, covering both the total budget and program elements. The percentage of budget expended compared with the percentage of the year elapsed constitutes an indicator of financial health, although this report would be supplemented by reports from program heads giving a summary of progress with work-accomplished indicators.

4. Capital Expenditures

As indicated in Chapter X, most centers require more adequate buildings and equipment than usually provided. If the programs of a center are to attract senior officials, they must be conducted in quarters that enable effective operations and command respect. The initial acquisition of land, erection of buildings and installation of equipment usually are the responsibility of the government or university, but sometimes the center also is provided with capital funds. In initial physical development as well as subsequent additions and replacements, the center's director has a major role to play.

a. Land. Because a center is the equivalent of a university in microcosm, it often requires sufficient land to cover residential quarters for students, playing fields, maintenance shops, dining halls, classrooms, auditorium, offices, and many other facilities. If located in a densely urban area, the acquisition costs might be prohibitive. If the center is located on or adjacent to a spacious university campus, there may be ample space. Whatever the location, room for expansion in accord with the center's long-term development plan is essential.

b. Construction of buildings. The center's director has an important role in the design and construction of buildings. In addition to drafting the specifications, the director and appropriate assistants should inspect progress continuously through the construction period. This will help identify defects in performance before it is too late, and perhaps find ways of reducing costs.

c. Funds for buildings. Capital funds for buildings may be derived from several sources:

1. Appropriations by the government out of current revenues
2. Allocation from the government's capital budget
3. Inclusion in the capital development funds assigned to a university.
4. Borrowing through the sale of bonds or pledged assets
5. Grants from bilateral or multilateral technical and economic assistance agencies.
6. Use of local currency counterpart funds generated under economic assistance.
7. Gifts from charitable foundations, business corporations, and individuals.

d. Fund for furnishings and equipment. The costs of fully furnishing and equipping a building should be planned and financed along with its construction. If such financing is impossible, separate funds are required, drawing on the sources listed under "c." Gifts in kind are also a possibility. Equipping the center's library with appropriate books and journals is an expensive part of the capital program. If electronic computers are to be purchased, the center should seek the maximum benefit of educational discounts that some manufacturers give.

e. Procedures in capital funding. Capital expenditures require careful long-range planning because decisions become irrevocable and a mistake may be exceedingly costly. The center's capital expenditure program should be coordinated with the center's long-range work program. It is from the work program that capital planning derives information on the additional facilities required in terms of function, size, nature, and time. Conversely, any work program must reflect facilities available in point of time. Therefore, the work program and the capital program should be considered both as variables to be coordinated each with the other to achieve a viable operation.

(1) Capital budgets usually are separate from current budgets because their sources of funding are distinct, and they usually cover a longer period of time, such as five or six years. Some capital expense may be included in the center's annual budget, notably for equipment, rehabilitation, and modification of structures. The annual budget may have to cover interest and amortization of debt, if funds were borrowed.

(2) The center's director follows approximately the same steps in submitting and negotiating a capital budget as an operating budget. If the center's capital budget is meshed into the total capital program of a university or a ministry of education, it will encounter competing programs and other obstacles. Hence, the value attached to the center by the chief executive, the national planning body, and leading members of the legislature will be a determining factor on the outcome.

(3) The procedures for spending capital funds, e.g., for purchasing land, entering into construction contracts, and buying equipment, normally are prescribed by government. If grants are received from foundations or other nongovernmental sources, the procedures they specify will govern. A central university office may conduct these operations. Whatever the source or restrictions on funds, a center should establish a sound procedure to safeguard them and ensure correct and productive expenditures.

(4) Construction of new buildings usually is best done through contracts entered into by competitive bidding. The process includes drafting of plans, preparation of specifications, invitation to bid, receipt of sealed competitive bids, public opening of bids at a specified time and place, and awarding of the contract to the lowest, responsible, qualified bidder. Bids may be accompanied by a performance guarantee, such as a performance bond or registered check. During construction, a system of inspection ensures compliance with specifications. Periodic payments are made as stages of construction are completed, with final payment withheld until a final inspection indicates that the building is fully satisfactory.

(5) Capital funds are recorded in a distinct set of capital accounts that do not have fiscal year limitations. Although the original equipment, furniture, and furnishings are chargeable as a capital cost of the facility, the replacement of such items normally is purchased from operating budgets.

(6) Inventory records to ensure control of all equipment and furnishings are verified annually.

5. Budget and Accounting Manual

All of the suggested policies and procedures mentioned above may be drafted in specific detail and incorporated into a manual.

a. Permanent guide. Such a manual is a permanent guide, subject to constant revision, which defines each step in budget, accounting, treasury, payroll, purchasing, contracting, and other fiscal procedures; the forms and reports utilized; the concurrences and clearances needed; and where responsibility for each aspect is placed.

b. Participation. Such a manual normally would be prepared by the center's administrative or finance officer and cleared in draft with program heads and the director. If the central government or university budget and accounting officers have an opportunity to review it, the system becomes known and widely supported.

6. The Post Audit of Financial Accounts

a. Need for annual audit. The financial records of every center should be subjected annually to a thorough post audit. A post audit determines whether the funds were spent as authorized, whether the accounting was appropriate, and whether the financial procedures conformed with best practices.

b. Importance of independent audit. The necessity of an audit by independent persons is fulfilled if a government auditing office makes the audit. Under this arrangement, the center cannot prescribe the time of the audit, its extent, or its nature. If free to select external auditors, the center should seek the most reputable independent auditing firm available and enlist its annual services. Only an audit by qualified persons with no responsibility for financial decisions can be truly objective and above suspicion.

c. Disposition of audit. After an audit report is received, the director assumes personal responsibility for initiating appropriate action on every criticism. The financial officer and each program chief is allocated responsibility for his portion of the corrective action. The director is provided by them with reports indicating that such action is in progress or completed. Although the post audit report may not be justified in every criticism and recommendation, the director is well advised to prepare a written statement on each point to submit to his board or superior officials, ultimately to be filed with the government or the university financial office.

Chapter XII. ENLISTING SUPPORT FOR SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES

Purpose. As evidenced in the preceding chapters, schools and institutes of public administration have great potential, if accorded adequate support, in providing a wide spectrum of education, training, research, information, and advisory services indispensable to the development and governance of nations. Since centers generally are starved for funds and their value is not fully understood, the purpose of this final chapter is to suggest measures that a center can take to enlist support from various sources. Such activity is often called development work, or, in a more limited context, public relations or public information.

1. Kinds of Support Required

a. Prerequisites for support. Widespread confidence in a center and recognition that its functions and capabilities are essential to the achievement of society's goals and policies are the foundation for support and for attracting funds with which to build a center's programs and services.

(1) The starting point in building continuous and substantial support is to develop a recognition by government that greater administrative capability is essential to execute the nation's development plans and programs and that training provides the means for extensive improvement in the capability of employees at middle and top levels of administrative responsibility.

(2) When government officials, public and private enterprises, educational institutions, and other bodies will take the initiative in channeling to the center pre-service persons of highest potential and in-service officials who have most need of upgrading, the case for support will have been demonstrated.

(3) Greater appreciation of the value of research in substantive aspects of public (and development) administration is needed to provide new and significant knowledge for the use of governments and others and to develop better teaching programs and materials. Special support is required for individual projects as well as general backing of a continuous research effort, including library, reference, and informational services.

(4) Advisory or consultancy services have languished because of lack of understanding of the importance of expert assistance for improving governmental organization, administrative practices, and procedures. Most officials are as yet unready to pay the cost in money and effort to develop and maintain consultancy capabilities.

b. Dependence on support. The assertion sometimes is made that if a center performs in a superior manner, it will develop prestige, and as a result support for it will be forthcoming. This conclusion is not necessarily correct. High quality programs cannot be undertaken without substantial financial underwriting for high quality staff and for other essentials. With centers denied the funds necessary to do high quality work, the whole society is penalized. Also, some centers with adequate financial support nevertheless perform poorly because of lack of leadership or appropriate programs. Unless a center gives high priority to efforts for the enlistment of support, it will "hide its light under a bushel" and its operations will languish.

c. Assessment. Any program to build support should start with an identification of (1) the views of key persons and groups about the purposes and functions of the center and (2) their evaluation of how well the center is performing its work.

2. Organizing a Support Program

Policies and activities to enlist support in the development of a center must be carefully planned, and responsibilities must be specifically assigned as in any other element of a center's program.

a. Assignment of tasks. In a small center, the director may perform most of the tasks in planning and conducting support or development activities. In larger centers, an assistant director may give substantial time to these tasks. Some centers, as well as universities, find it advantageous to utilize a "development officer" to devote full time to assisting the director in such matters. Such a person works with the heads of the various programs in building effective relationships, preparing informational materials, interpreting activities, and garnering support. He is far more than a public relations officer, because he is directly involved in program planning, project negotiation, recruitment of students, and other developmental work.

b. Development tasks. The following list illustrates the principal kinds of development or support tasks. The development officer may be primarily responsible for some. In others, his role is to assist other officers who have primary responsibility for the task.

(1) Preparation of long-term and short-term development plans.

(2) Planning and conducting a public relations program to inform government officials, business and enterprise executives, university faculty members, secondary school teachers, political leaders, labor union officers, and other groups about the work of the center and its contribution to economic and social progress.

(3) Preparation of bulletins, catalogues, brochures, and other announcements of regular academic programs and special training projects, and their distribution to appropriate persons.

(4) Visits to secondary and other schools and universities to explain the programs of the center to teachers and students.

(5) Negotiation with government agencies, enterprises, cooperatives, labor unions, and other groups in developing special training projects and securing high quality participants.

(6) Arrangements for internships and the placement of students and graduates.

(7) Staging conferences and meetings involving key officials and other leaders as lecturers or speakers in specially arranged events.

(8) Conduct of a systematic program for keeping the center in contact with its graduates, including the distribution of a newsletter and materials prepared by the center's staff, to keep them abreast of developments at the center and in the profession.

(9) Initiation, in cooperation with leading officials, of a society or association for public administration (to serve as a national section of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences) or a chapter of the Society for International Development; and provision of secretariat services as appropriate.

(10) Cultivation of a market for the center's publications and services, encouraging agencies and individuals to purchase them.

(11) Keeping international organizations, foundations, and associations informed of activities and accomplishments; seeking support if indicated.

(12) Obtaining grants from business firms and enterprises.

(13) Maintenance of effective relationships with the press, radio, and television.

c. Organization of the development function. The decision on how the above tasks should be divided among a center's director, assistant director, development officer, publications officer, student services officer, and program officers requires careful study and full agreement. Whatever the scope of duties, the development man serves as a staff officer to the center's director, and he may be called an assistant director or assistant to the director. If a student services officer is competent in public relations, he may perform some of the developmental tasks. The development officer should not be burdened with editing and reproducing the publications of the center, but he should have a voice in planning what publications to issue and how disseminated, notably such items as newsletters, a journal, and brochures.

d. Effect of center's organizational location. The organizational posture of the center affects its support tasks in various ways:

(1) If the center is attached to the government's chief executive's office and is an important instrument in connection with the country's development efforts, it has a built-in source of support. However, leaders in government change, and if interest and understanding are not also built into lower administrative levels, the initial support may evaporate.

(2) "L'ecoles nationale d'administration" in the French pattern, which recruit, train, and place civil servants, are in an especially strong position, because they are an integral part of government and can exercise influence and win support.

(3) If the center is a constituent school or institute in a university, it must take exceptional measures to build support relationships. It has the handicap of overcoming the opposition of professors unsympathetic with this new field of education, as well as the popular view of universities as "ivory towers."

(4) Centers organized in a relatively independent status have the dual problem of achieving respect in academic circles and of persuading government to use them.

The further removed the center is placed from the locus of administrative power the more persevering must be its plan for enlisting government trust and dependency on its services.

3. Budgetary Support

A primary concern of every public administration center is obtaining general budgetary support of sufficient magnitude to enable it to fulfill the requireme[illegible] educational, research, and other assistance services. Very few centers are provided with adequate resources. With rare exceptions, they have serious financial problems, despite the fact that the amount of funds required is a very minute part of a country's educational or development budget.

a. Importance to development. Because the lack of administrative capabilities is the primary obstacle to economic and social development, the main argument for budgetary support is the center's role in enhancing such capability. The preparation by the center of annual and long-term work programs, development plans, and program-based budgets, as described in Chapters II and XI, should facilitate understanding of the center's potential contribution. However, much more is needed, as suggested in the checklist of development tasks under 2b above. The process begins with the center's participation in manpower planning, especially as related to government's needs. The important role of the center is revealed by the shortages of administrative personnel catalogued in Chapter II. The center's budget should be considered in the context of the development budget, not buried in an educational budget. Failures to implement programs and to manage development projects effectively, a very common occurrence, provide adequate reasons for expanding the center's program and budget.

b. Source of appropriations. A center whose appropriations are part of those of the chief executive's office is in the best position to obtain sympathetic consideration for its budget requests. The situation would be almost equally favorable if the appropriations are part of the development budget. Difficulties often arise if a center's budget is approved by university academic authorities or if its general funds are derived from a university grants body or from a ministry of education. Members of such bodies may be steeped in traditional educational concepts and respond to pressures of customary faculties and educational groups. Unless the center offers programs leading to degrees, there is no legitimate reason for processing its budget through educational bodies. If it offers degrees and is constrained to secure funds through these channels, the allocations may best cover only academic programs, leaving to a separate budget request and appropriation the non-degree, research, and other services conducted directly for government.

c. Multiple sources of funds. A resourceful center taps many special sources of income:

(1) Short-term training projects requested by government and not covered in the center's regular budget should be financed by special funding agreements or by fees.

(2) The cost of research or consultancy projects requested by governmental or other bodies not scheduled under the basic budget should be reimbursed by the benefiting agency.

(3) The sale of journals, monographs, books, directories, and other substantive documents will produce revenue. Placing a price on such documents creates more interest and respect for them than if widely distributed free.

(4) Capital and current funds, especially for fellowships and other forms of student aid, may be enlisted from private and public corporations.

(5) Agreement may be reached on a policy of having ministries and other agencies use their funds to finance tuition, fees, and other costs of enrolling employees in the center's programs.

(6) A center provides prosperous businesses and individuals with an excellent channel for philanthropy, and for support of a socially beneficial institution.

(7) Pooling of resources among two or more centers and interchange of instructors has often proved financially advantageous.

(8) Many centers have been assisted substantially by public and private bilateral and multilateral technical assistance agencies and by foundations. These agencies constitute a very important source of funds for initiating new programs, training of staff overseas, exchange arrangements, research projects, and for library acquisitions. Instructional and other staff from abroad are often obtainable through these resources. An illustrative list of such organizations is found below in Section 6.

d. Conditions of support. Assistance agencies report that centers could receive more timely and effective help if they were more resourceful in preparing and presenting proposals or plans for the utilization of grants. Such agencies, in turn, require staff who are better informed about the role and problems of centers and more zealous to give the center full opportunity to present its case. In a major commitment of assistance, the requirement that the government pledge a specified level of support over a five- or six-year period may help build a permanent support base. On the other hand, caution is needed against impairing priorities or improperly modifying an important program merely to secure funds or to respond to some whim of a representative of an assistance agency.

e. Proposals for support. Acquisition of skill in drafting proposals for assistance is an essential of every center. Such proposals need to:

(1) State clearly the need or opportunity

(2) Describe the plan of action or program

(3) Explain how and by whom the program would be achieved—the capability for performance.

(4) Specify the costs—how much the assistance agency would be expected to bear, how much the center can finance from other sources, and how the program would be financed at the end of the grant.

(5) Define the results or benefits that would be derived.

4. Special Activities to Enlist Support

Several developmental and public relations activities warrant special attention:

a. Involvement of students. Perhaps the center's greatest long-term asset is the group of officials who believe that their training at the center has contributed significantly to their competences. Such interest is fostered through providing an opportunity for students to evaluate programs and suggest improvements as proposed in Chapters IV and V. Student unions and interest groups can help create effective dialogue between students and staff, as well as foster special lectures, performances, and social events. Through such participation, students develop pride in the center and in the certificates, diplomas, and degrees they receive. This pride encourages continued support long after their departure from the center.

b. Alumni participation. Graduates of centers need constant reminders of ways they can continue to help the center. Because professional preparation is a lifelong process, centers have a continuing responsibility of assisting further growth and of helping to keep their graduates abreast of new concepts and ideas in their fields. To this end, a center may:

(1) Maintain current lists of the positions held and addresses of its graduates.

(2) Send congratulations whenever a graduate is appointed to a more responsible position or receives favorable recognition.

(3) Distribute annual or quarterly newsletters about the center and alumni.

(4) Stage a day of visitation for graduates, featuring special seminars.

(5) Hold occasional meetings in regional and major urban locations for alumni discussions with visiting staff members.

(6) Enlist alumni assistance in organizing and sustaining a public administration society, which might serve as a national section of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences or of the Society for International Development.

(7) Use selected graduates to visit secondary schools and other institutions to stimulate applications and to interview prospects.

(8) Initiate alumni contributions to acquire funds for special needs of the center not readily financed in other ways.

c. Circulation of materials. Some centers make considerable impact in the dissemination of ideas and in keeping in touch with officials by noting the latter's problems and circulating information embracing possible solutions. A most effective way to make a favorable impression is to send a personal note with a copy of a report, memorandum, journal, or other document, calling attention to the specific item of interest. Often the circulation of copies of correspondence or items received from abroad can stimulate new ideas. The preparation and distribution of an interesting annual report by the center is commonly attempted.

d. Mailing lists. The maintenance of lists of persons whom a center wishes to reach is imperative. By maintaining sublists for ministers, permanent secretaries, administrative improvement officers, municipal administrators, managers of enterprise, and other groups, centers can dispatch communications and materials with suitable transmittal notes or letters. Such lists provide a ready means for inviting special groups to meetings, lectures, or conferences, and for reference by secretaries to ensure correct addressing and by professional staff members in arranging appointments or mailings.

e. Meetings and seminars. Involvement of very senior officials in special meetings and seminars not only increases competences but provides a means for acquainting them with the work of the center. Such meetings may feature participation by some internationally recognized expert, scholar, or official in public administration or in a related sectoral field. If the center has funds for luncheons and dinners or if officials will support "Dutch treat" events, informal meetings of this kind are especially advantageous.

f. Advisory council. If the center has a governing council, advisory board, or committee of sponsors of government officials and other distinguished persons, its members can become a potent force for enlisting support. Its collective actions relating to programs, budgets, development plans, and other aspects of the center often are supplemented by individual efforts of members in a position to defend or advocate the center. By keeping the members of such a council well informed and related to the center, their commitment to it may be strengthened.

5. Publicity

Many activities of centers are newsworthy and appropriate for reporting to the press, radio, and television. If representatives of these media visit the center and are generally well informed, they can respond knowledgeably when some special event, new program, or issuance warrants publicizing. The center's development officer can be helpful by preparing texts of releases and scripts, arranging for interviews, and providing participants for radio and TV presentations. A related task is to ensure that news about the center is distributed to journals and selected persons both within the country and internationally. Press releases often have greatest value if sent directly to selected persons on the center's mailing list.

6. External Assistance Sources

The following is a list of some organizations assisting centers with funds for special purposes or with assistance in kind:

a. Intergovernmental and professional

(1) The Public Administration Division of the United Nations provides: experts, instructors, and other kinds of assistance for centers; fellowships for staff members of centers; research studies and reports on training and administrative problems of direct concern to centers. The Economic Commissions of the UN in Africa (ECA), Latin America (ECLA), and the Far East (ECAFE) are working closely with centers.

(2) United Nations Specialized Agencies: United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, World Health Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization, and other agencies related to the UN sometimes assist centers in more specialized ways.

(3) Organization of American States: offers fellowships for staff members of centers, provides experts for assistance in organization of centers and preparation of curricula, and makes available professors for their courses. The Centro Interamericano de Capacitacion en Administracion Publica (Inter-American Center for Training in Public Administration), CICAP, in Buenos Aires and Caracas, offers courses in any country in Latin America to meet specific national public administration training needs.

(4) Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development: conducts studies of training and research needs, operates training projects in cooperation with centers, finances assignment of center staff members to advanced training programs, and encourages member countries to support schools and institutes in developing countries.

(5) International Institute of Administrative Sciences: the program of assistance to the International Group of Schools and Institutes is described in Section 8 of Chapter I.

(6) International Union of Local Authorities: a professional organization in the field of local government with worldwide membership of municipalities, associations of municipalities, and persons concerned with local government which offers courses, organizes conferences and seminars, publishes reports, periodicals and bibliographical lists.

(7) Society for International Development: fosters chapters in each country for consideration of problems of development administration and issues a journal containing information of value to centers.

(8) Such regional centers as the Instituto Centroamericano de Administracion Publica (ICAP) in Costa Rica (UN assisted), the Inter-American School of Public Administration in Brazil (IADB assisted), the African Centre for Training and Research in Development Administration (CAFRAD) in Tangier (UNESCO assisted) are sources of help in their regions.

b. Private international agencies and foundations

(1) The Institute of International Education: administers for U.S. and foreign students, fellowships sponsored by the U.S. and foreign governments, foundations, and corporations, and awards for U.S. and foreign leaders and specialists. It also provides fiscal, procurement, and other administrative services to agencies and institutions involved in international education, arranges English language and orientation programs for foreign students, publishes and disseminates information concerning international educational exchange.

(2) African-American Institute: has assisted centers in Africa by helping in student arrangements, exchanges, and fellowship funds.

(3) Ford Foundation: provides substantial assistance to selected centers, including assignment of expert staff, fellowships, library resources, development and research grants, financing of facilities and equipment.

(4) The Asia Foundation: aids centers by financing training programs for staff members, acquisition of library materials, research, assignment of instructors from abroad, and specialized programs of local centers and institutes for training of foreign service personnel, government administrators, and legislative staff.

(5) The Rockefeller Foundation has given help to centers, notably in the form of fellowships.

c. Bilateral agencies

(1) United States Agency for International Development: this organization is the official United States Government agency for providing financial and technical assistance to centers. This aid includes financing inter-university contracts, instructors and advisors, participant training, library acquisitions, equipment, facilities, and other needs.

(2) The United Kingdom Ministry of Overseas Development: this agency is the official British agency for providing centers with the assistance similar to that mentioned in (1) above.

(3) The French Ministry of Cooperation: this ministry provides similar kinds of assistance to l'ecoles d'administration in former French territories.

(4) Japan, Australia, Canada, and several European members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development provide assistance to centers.

(5) The Institute of Social Studies in the Hague offers fellowships available to staff members of centers in several fields of direct relevance.

(6) Some centers comprising the IIAS group of schools and institutes have excellent facilities for training staff members from other centers.

(7) Some private bodies also provide fellowships and arrange for the assignment of persons to centers to help in teaching and other duties.

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC AND INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS
University of Pittsburgh

THE TASKS OF MANAGEMENT

Although the term "management" is not susceptible to precise definition, management's total job can be broken down into a number of specific "tasks" or duties which are common to the management function no matter where it is carried out. The time and sequence in which management (or the manager) carries out these tasks cannot be specified; neither is it feasible to determine their relative importance in the total job. Since management is dynamic, it should be recognized that in nearly all cases the tasks listed below are carried on simultaneously and that they represent a continuous and changing cycle of activity.

Relation to Process and Theory

This list of tasks differs from efforts to describe or theorize about the "administrative process." There is no effort to fit the tasks into sequential relationship or to reflect the steps in decision-making. Understanding of these interrelated tasks of management will help in the study of process and theory.

Moreover, this list does not presume to answer the where, how, or who in the performance of these tasks. It merely specifies what tasks must be carried out by management if an organization or enterprise is to function effectively and efficiently.

Origin of List

This list was developed initially by my staff in the United States Bureau of the Budget, Executive Office of the President, for use in the conduct of advanced level training of departmental administrative personnel. It was modified and amplified as a result of numerous discussions.

I used the list later in the Economic Cooperation Administration and Mutual Security Agency. It has been analyzed in numerous Dean's Seminars, institutes, and courses at the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs. It is always subject to change as new insights are provided. Your suggestions for its improvement are solicited.

Donald C. Stone

Outline of the Tasks

In order to manage, the manager, administrator, or executive must either carry out the following tasks, or see that they are carried out, with effective participation and consultation of persons who have a legitimate concern or who have an expert contribution to make.

1. Define objectives for the enterprise (policy planning):
    a. Determine the broad objectives in terms of desired results.
    b. Set priorities for these objectives
    c. Decide the general method of reaching these objectives; e.g. enforcement through communication, participation, supervision, education, or prosecution.
    d. Establish broad time, cost, and quality limits for these objectives.
2. Plan programs to carry out these stated objectives (program and budget planning):
    a. Determine activities necessary to reach objectives
    b. Set priorities for these activities
    c. Translate these activities into specific problems by:
        (1) Forecasting work volume by activity and location, clientele group, organization unit, etc.
        (2) Determining available resources; i.e. time, funds, skills, etc.
        (3) Identifying, through analysis and research, special factors or situations which will condition the program.
        (4) Preparing a detailed work plan for the program.
        (5) Setting schedules (both partial and final completion dates) for both the program as a whole and its component parts.
    d. Determine costs of programs

3. Plan and build organization structure to carry out programs:

   a. Examine and compare all basic work processes involved in carrying out agency's program activities.

   b. Develop structure for line organization to integrate these processes and activities.

   c. Determine staff facilities required to serve each echelon and develop a plan for staff activities.

4. Plan and install procedures and methods: Develop detailed routines, procedures, and systems for substantive or operating, staff, and service activities which give proper attention to:

   a. Distribution and sequence of work

   b. Scheduling and control of work

   c. Worker methods

   d. Skill utilization

   e. Forms, space, equipment, etc.

5. Procure funds and administer finances:

   a. Translate work programs, projects, and activities into budget requirements.

   b. Develop estimates of staff, equipment, supplies, and services into funds by time periods to carry out programs.

   c. Estimate revenues and appropriations required

   d. Make allotments

6. Provide the necessary personnel

   a. Define individual positions and the number required

   b. Determine and schedule staffing priorities

   c. Recruit and place individuals

   d. Train the personnel

7. Provide the information necessary for management

    a. Determine what information various echelons of management will require:

        (1) To evaluate performance

        (2) To relate progress to program schedules

        (3) To see status of funds (i.e. maintain accounts), staff, plant, equipment, and material.

    b. Establish a work measurement system to yield required data.

    c. Develop, where possible, standards of cost, quality and production for individual work operations.

    d. Set up a system of control records and reports to collect and summarize this information for management's use.

    e. Develop a system of operational audits as a continuing control device.

    f. Determine what information is required about the program's effect and provide for its collection.

    g. Provide for the collection of intelligence and information necessary for planning.

8. Analyze the information provided for management

    a. Program operations:

        (1) Analyze information on performance provided by reports and surveys to determine:

            (a) Deviation from standards

            (b) Progress in meeting program schedules

            (c) Realization of schedules for staffing, expenditures, and procurement.

        (2) Authorize special investigations and surveys to determine causes of poor performance and necessary corrective action.

    b. Program objectives:

        (1) Review information on effect or results of program.

(2) Analyze outside survey and intelligence data

(3) Evaluate correctness of objectives and means in the light of this information.

9. Adjust and improve program operations and objectives

a. Revise and improve organization, procedures, and methods.

b. Provide more adequate staff facilities

c. Improve the quality of personnel and supervision

d. Alter program objectives and activities to meet external conditions.

10. Motivate the organization:

a. Measure the reaction of organization personnel to policies and objectives.

b. Analyze external forces and conditions affecting attitudes.

c. Indoctrinate in organization policies

d. Interpret and communicate changes in goals promptly

e. Develop social, economic, and other types of incentives.

f. Develop and promote staff according to a systematic plan.

g. Promote the two-way flow of experience and opinion by stimulating communication and the interchange of information.

h. Develop responsible participation and initiative among workers.

i. Utilize performance data to inform workers of progress.

11. Provide facilities and supplies:

a. Plan the establishment, maintenance, and use of plant

b. Procure and maintain supplies and equipment

12. Maintain external relationships with:
    - a. Legislature
    - b. Administrative superiors
    - c. Related agencies
    - d. Agency clientele
    - e. General public

13. After adequate staff work and consultation, issue orders to carry out decisions and policies and develop a system for the control and distribution of issuances.

MODEL FOR ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING

The following is a problem-solving model useful in planning and conducting analyses of policy, program, managerial, and operational problems. The steps described reflect the scientific process of decision-making applicable in telescoped form and even unconsciously in making on-the-spot decisions as well as in the conduct of intensive or extensive studies. Basic to the development of competence in analysis and development of solutions to complex problems is an understanding of the following steps in the process.

1. Determination that a problem exists which needs to be solved.
    a. Identification of the problem
    b. Delineation of the issues
2. Planning how to study the problem
3. Collection of facts and information
4. Analysis of significant and relevant facts
5. Drawing of conclusions about causes, effects, factors, values.
6. Formulating alternate solutions (courses of action)
    a. Define alternate courses
    b. List possible outcomes of each course—pros and cons
    c. Determine the probability of each outcome
    d. Determine the value; that is, the preferences for each outcome.
    e. Select the solution or action which has the most favorable outcome expectation.
7. Presentation of recommendations. Negotiation, persuasion, salesmanship, education.
8. Decision at point of responsibility and accountability—institutional decision.
9. Implementation, installation, application
10. Control over progress of the project; subsequent evaluation of results.

APPENDIX C

AN ADAPTABLE CURRICULUM FORMAT IN PUBLIC AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

With Optional Specializations or Concentrations in

1. Governmental Administration
2. Social and Economic Development (Development Administration)
3. Business and Enterprise Management
4. Municipal Management (Local Government)
5. International Affairs Administration

The following represents, illustratively, how a range of courses might fulfill the curriculum framework and other criteria of Chapter III. By selection of appropriate subjects the curriculum could be contracted to a two-year diploma program at undergraduate level, or a three- or four-year undergraduate program combined with a postgraduate diploma or master's degree, or structured entirely at the postgraduate level. Thus the course "building blocks" can be combined in many combinations. The third, fourth and fifth year offerings could comprise the principal elements of doctoral study. Likewise, some undergraduate programs without much professional emphasis might be made more relevant to today's world by utilizing the kind of courses listed under the first two to three years.

It is assumed in the course listing that the academic year is divided into two terms. Courses are designated as covering two terms or one term. If the year were divided into three terms, courses would be designated as one, two, or three-term courses. Assumed further is that the two or three terms aggregate up to 38 or more weeks of full operations, thus eliminating the wastefulness of long and excessive vacations. However, a single long break may be used for field research or interships. If not so used, a major research or thesis project would be desirable during the final year of the program.

The equivalent of eight one-term courses is assumed to be a full-time study program for a year, with 16 classroom hours per week (exclusive of laboratory, clinical problem-solving exercises, and field work time) being considered a full load. Normally four courses would be taken simultaneously, but the courses could run in a consecutive fashion, or some combination of these two arrangements.

If the program is structured as a pre-service diploma, postgraduate diploma, or master's program following undergraduate work, or as an in-service program for experienced officials, courses would be selected primarily from those listed for the fourth and fifth years. The level of subject matter would need to be adjusted to the participants' backgrounds. Sixty to 75 students rather evenly divided among fields would be needed to make course opportunities suggested for the fourth and fifth year economically feasible.

Professional courses entail consideration of legal, economic, political, social, and administrative elements, thus building up competence in each of these disciplines. Such courses should be heavily problem-oriented, relying on newer types of teaching methods described in Section 7 of Chapter III. Some courses are called "workshops" to emphasize their applied aspects.

In these assumptions and delineation of subjects, the focus has been on education for changing conditions and needs of countries undergoing technical modernization and rapid development. Thus, traditional curricula and educational practices, which differ from country to country in any event, have not been considered. The aim is to stimulate useful innovation.

The number of specializations or concentrations can be reduced or expanded to serve national needs. For example, specializations in health and hospital administration, public works, or in public welfare could easily be added.

The greater the amount of specialization, the more costly the program becomes. If the number of students is insufficient to provide optimum course enrollment in the fourth and fifth year, then more common or shared courses are indicated. The fields covered by the illustrative curriculum are of crucial importance to a country, and the funds required for quality instruction deserve high priority.

Illustrative Courses

FIRST YEAR — A common program for all students

1. Man and his environment: the origin of man and his evolution, man as a psychological and social being, human response to changing environments, environmental and religious determinants of culture and societal characteristics, tradition and change, effect of science and technology on individual and community development, implications of industrialization and urbanization, effect of rapid social change on values. Two terms.

2. History of (country's) development: origin and evolution of family (tribal) and local government patterns, major steps in the achievement of national identity and statehood, the growth of social, educational, and governmental institutions, economic factors and progress, establishment of legal concepts and procedures, the country's literature as a reflection of national maturation. Two terms.

3. Mathematics: a basic grounding in mathematical concepts, methods, and problems; course serves as foundation for courses #10 and 11. Two terms.

4. Communication: principles of interpersonal communication; writing, speed reading, oral communication, listening comprehension. Two terms of class, plus extensive laboratory or clinical exercises. (Most courses should help develop the students' communication skills.)

SECOND YEAR — A common program for all students

5. Political science: a study of political ideas, constitutional systems, governmental structures and processes, presented comparatively with special emphasis on (country). One term.

6. Economics: concepts and principles, macro and micro analysis and applications, economics of (country), examination of selected economic problems. Two terms.

7. Law for administrators: legal framework of government and business, statutory law, administrative rules and legal procedure, civil rights, personal and agency responsibility and constraints, contracts, torts, juridical processes, preparation and use of legal documents. One term.

8. Concepts of administration: role of administration in modern society, administration and policy, executive-legislative relationships, public service and business functions, organization, the tasks of management, bureaucracy and the civil service, the financial system, decision-making, communication, control, administrative responsibility and accountability.

9. Administrative behavior: group behavior and intergroup relations, human relations in organization, social and psychological factors in management, leadership and responsibility, incentives, administration, rewards and penalties, social ethics, professional values, involvement of subculture groups. One term.

10. Mathematics and statistics: principles of scientific inquiry, purposes and uses of statistics, mathematical methods in statistical processes, data collection and analysis, problems and applications. First term.

11. Quantitative analysis: quantitative methods in administration, elements of systems analysis, data processing, use of computer. Second term.

THIRD YEAR — Common courses required for all fields

12. Comparative administration: a model for comparative study, government vs. business administration, public vs. private enterprise management, national vs. municipal administration, comparative national and municipal administrative systems. One term.

13. Financial management: analysis of the country's financial system, requisites of financial management, preparation and administration of budgets, financial information for management and control purposes, role of accounting and auditing, financial control over supplies, equipment, and contract operations. (Not required of business management students.) One term.

14. Personnel management: analysis of the country's public and private personnel practices in relation to essentials of modern personnel systems—classification, recruitment, selection, promotion, training, remuneration, conditions of service, and discipline; personnel administration as an integral aspect of executive management; integrating of subcultures into public and private services.

15. Social science research methods: a workshop course in the applicability of selected research methodologies of political science, sociology, economics, and social psychology to policy and program development and to administrative problem-solving. (An extension of courses #10 and 11.)

Specialization in Governmental Administration

THIRD YEAR — Four terms of specialized courses to be added to four terms of common courses

16. Governmental accounting principles and techniques. One term.

17. Public finance: the economics of public and private expenditures, taxation, capital investment, debt, trade, customs, balance of payments, fiscal and monetary policy, national-regional-local fiscal relations. One term.

18. Planning and execution of programs: examines the process of how specific government programs are initiated through administrative and political action, organized, staffed, financed, managed, and evaluated, i.e., case studies in institution building. One term.

Optional courses (select one term)

19. Local government: rural local administration, growth of cities, municipal functions, organization, modernization of rural and municipal government. One term.

20. The international system: nation-states and achievement of international community, the (country's) major international involvements and problems, formulation and implementation of foreign policy, participation in international organizations. One term.

FOURTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work required

21. Processes and strategies of national development. Two terms.

22. Administrative decentralization: delegation of responsibility and authority, patterns and problems of headquarters-field relations, deconcentration to lower levels of government, development of effective intergovernmental relations. One term.

23. Workshop in project management: the design, evaluation, selection, scheduling, financing, direction, and control of development projects—agricultural, industrial, public works, educational, etc. One term.

24. Workshop in administrative management: administrative and organizational problem-solving; factgathering and analytical methods; O & M techniques, administrative surveys; major governmental reforms; administrative improvement and cost reduction programs. Two terms.

Optional courses (select two terms)

16-20. An option of whichever course was not selected in third year. One term.

25. Management of public enterprise: role and policy issues, legal aspects, financing, organization, staffing, costing and pricing, responsibility and accountability, coordination. One term.

— Any fourth-year course from any other field which is relevant to student's program, e.g., #36, 37, 38, 46, 58, 59, 60, 67, 69. One term.

FIFTH YEAR — Eight terms required

26. Executive leadership and the function of management. One term.

27. Administrative and organizational requisites for development. One term.

28. Comparative administrative systems of England, France, United States, Soviet Union, and (country). One term.

29. Workshop in major governmental and development administration reforms. One term.

30. Workshop in policy analysis, formulation, and resolution; administrative-legislative roles; politics and administration. One term.

31. Workshop in financial and budgetary management. One term.

Optional courses (select two terms)

32. Workshop in the improvement of management and operations of public enterprise. One term.

— Any other fifth-year course relevant to the student's program, e.g., #39, 40, 50, 56, 62, 63, 70, 71, and 74.

Note. If long vacations do not provide opportunity for research and internship projects, two terms are recommended to be scheduled for this purpose, thus reducing regular course work.

Specialization in Social and Economic Development

THIRD YEAR — Four terms of specialized course work to be added to four terms of common courses

16-20. Option of any two of these courses

33. The country's social and economic goals and achievements. One term.

34. Development economics and economic policy. One term.

35. National resources, investment, input-output analysis, national accounting. One term.

— Option of any two of courses #16-20, or course #65 (international economics).

FOURTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

21. Processes and strategies of national development. One term.

36. National development planning and programming. One term.

37. Workshop in sectoral (functional) planning and programming. One term.

23. Workshop in project management. One term.

25. Management of public enterprise. One term.

Optional courses (Select two terms)

17. Public finance. One term.

18. Planning and execution of programs. One term.

20. The international system. One term.

23. Administrative decentralization. One term.

38. Rural community development. One term.

68. International trade and finance. One term.

FIFTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

27. Administrative and organizational requisites for development. One term.

39. Workshop in the implementation of sectoral programs: optional fields of agriculture, industry, education, health and welfare, public works. Two terms.

40. Integrating municipal, regional, and national development efforts. One term.

Optional courses (select four terms)

24. Workshop in administrative management. Two terms.

26. Executive leadership and the function of management. One term.

28. Comparative administrative systems.

30. Workshop in policy analysis, formulation, and resolution. One term.

31. Workshop in financial and budgetary management. One term.

32. Workshop in the improvement of management and operations of public enterprise. One term.

50. Business and enterprise policy. One term.

51. Labor economics and human relations. One term.

62. Urban social planning and development. One term.

74. Workshop in intercultural operations. One term.

Note. If long vacations do not provide opportunity for research and internship projects, two terms are recommended to be scheduled for this purpose, thus reducing regular course work.

Specialization in Business and Enterprise Management

THIRD YEAR — Six terms of specialized course work to be added to two terms of common courses

41. Managerial economics. One term.

42. Organization of private enterprise. One term.

43. Applied statistics and quantitative analysis. One term.

44. Business accounting principles and practice. Two terms.

Optional courses (select one term)

From among courses 13, 17, 33, 34, and 35.

FOURTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

21. Processes and strategies of national development. Two terms.

25. Management of public enterprise. One term.

45. Managerial accounting. First term.

46. Business financial management. Second term.

47. Workshop in production management. One term.

48. Workshop in marketing management. One term.

Optional courses (select one term)

From among courses 23, 33, 34, 35, and 36.

FIFTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

49. Corporate finance, taxation, and legal constraints. One term.

50. Business and enterprise policy. One term.

51. Labor economics and labor relations. One term.

52. Money and banking. One term.

53. Organizational analysis workshop. One term.

54. Financial management workshop. One term.

Optional courses (select two terms)

55. Workshop in marketing research. One term.

56. Workshop in operations research methodologies. One term.

32. Workshop in the improvement of management and operations of public enterprise. One term.

27. Administrative and organizational requisites for development. One term.

Note. If long vacations do not provide opportunity for research and internship projects, two terms are recommended to be scheduled for this purpose, thus reducing regular course work.

Specialization in Municipal Management

THIRD YEAR — Four terms of specialized courses to be added to two terms of common courses

16. Accounting principles and technique. One term.

17. Public finance. One term.

19. Local government. One term.

57. Urbanization and its concomitant problems. One term.

FOURTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

58. Urban and regional planning. Two terms.

59. Workshop in local government financial management. One term.

60. Administration of local public services. One term.

22. Administrative decentralization. One term.

18. Planning and execution of programs. One term.

Optional courses (select two terms)

23. Workshop in project management. One term.

24. Workshop in administrative management. Two terms.

37. Workshop in sectoral planning and programming. One term.

— Any other fourth-year course relevant to the student's program.

FIFTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

38. Rural community development. One term.

40. Integrating municipal, regional, and national development efforts. One term.

61. Municipal corporations and administrative law. One term.

62. Urban social planning and development. One term.

63. Workshop on problems of population control, poverty, intergroup relations, and human rights. One term.

64. Municipal executive management. One term.

Optional courses (select two terms)

21. Processes and strategy of national development. Two terms.

30. Workshop in policy analysis, formulation, and resolution. One term.

31. Workshop in financial and budgetary management. One term.

— Any other fifth-year course relevant to the student's program.

— Language study.

Note. If long vacations do not provide opportunity for research and internship projects, two terms are recommended to be scheduled for this purpose, thus reducing regular course work.

Specialization in International Affairs Administration

THIRD YEAR — Four terms of specialized courses to be added to four terms of common courses

20. The international system. One term.

65. International economics. Two terms.

66. Foreign policy problems of (country). One term.

FOURTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

67. Workshop on the formulation and implementation of foreign policies. Two terms.

68. International trade and finance. One term.

69. Role and potential of international organizations. One term.

21. Processes and strategies of national development. Two terms.

Optional courses (select two courses)

18. Planning and execution of programs. One term.

24. Workshop in administrative management. Two terms.

36. National development planning and programming. One term.

— Language study.

FIFTH YEAR — Eight terms of course work

28. Comparative administrative systems. One term.

70. National organization for the conduct of foreign affairs. One term.

71. Organization, management, and methods of international agencies. One term.

72. Workshop on diplomacy, negotiation, and conference management. One term.

73. International communications and information policy. One term.

74. Workshop in intercultural operations. One term.

Optional courses (select two terms)

26. Executive leadership and the function of management. One term.

30. Workshop in policy analysis, formulation, and resolution. One term.

31. Workshop in financial and budgetary management. One term.

63. Workshop on problems of population control, poverty, intergroup relations, and human rights. One term.

Note. If long vacations do not provide opportunity for research and internship projects, two terms are recommended to be scheduled for this purpose, thus reducing regular course work.

APPENDIX D

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC AND INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS
University of Pittsburgh

Course CC 360
Spring Term 1968

Donald C. Stone
Instructor

General Syllabus for the Course

APPLICATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY AND PROCESS TO FIELDS OF ACTION

This seminar and workshop seeks to relate concepts of administrative theory and processes of administrative action to the environmental areas which students have chosen as their major fields: public administration, economic and social development, international affairs, and urban affairs. It is assumed that the participants have already acquired adequate knowledge of and familiarity with the major works in administrative theory and the theory of formal organizations. Hence, the initial focus of the seminar will be on problems of integration, relevancy, and application.

The role of the executive is the integrative factor which facilitates the study of administrative functions and processes in different contexts. We will thus devote most of the course to clinical cases and discussion on how the executive achieves policy and program objectives. We shall utilize practical cases or simulations drawn from local, national, and international organizations. They will entail the analysis of organization, programs, and executive methods and the development of proposed solutions.

The clinical approach to studying administrative operations is expected to enhance the diagnostic capability of the student, to increase his competence in carrying out important research and consultation tasks, to improve his methods of performance in practical situations, and to test his ability to transfer knowledge and experience from concept to application and vice versa.

The formulation of policies and programs, the manipulation of organizational structures, the design of instruments and tools to enable the executive to "get on top of his job", and the recommendation of solutions to administrative problems are some of the channels to bring about organizational change and to achieve public goals. The investigation of those and other managerial tools will be attempted in the clinical exercises.

The participants are expected to reveal their knowledge and experiences in their respective specialties in class and group discussions. In the several written assignments, each participant will be expected to demonstrate high level capability in analysis and development of solutions to administrative problem-solving—in other words to apply the model for problem-solving to concrete situations. A discussion guide and schedule will be distributed for each session to specify the subject matter and other requirements.

Session Topics	Clinical Projects
I. Administrative Concepts and Hypotheses to be Tested	A. Preparation of group reports on applicability of theory to different public service fields
II. Instrumentalities and Processes Used by Executives to Achieve Objectives	
III. Criteria of Effective Policy and Program Documents	B. Search by students for illustrations of effective executive documents
IV. How an Administrator Gets "on Top" of a New Post	C. Case of assuming the post of director of the National Planning Council of Progresso
V. Administration of Universities and Institutes of Administration	D. Preparation of work program and budget for the Institute of Administration of Progresso
VI. Decision-making Processes in Resolving Work Program and Budget Issues	
VII. Development Planning and Administration	E. Role-playing case of a United Nations technical assistance team in personnel administration to Progresso
VIII. Role of the Executive in Development Administration	F. Preparation of a program for the development of the public works sector of Progresso
IX. Programming and Budgeting as Instruments in Development Administration	
X. Developing Effective Administration in Municipalities	G. Preparation of a plan for rationalizing municipal government in Progresso
XI. Purpose and Method of Preparing a Comprehensive Urban Policies and Fiscal Plan	H. Survey and preparation of report covering the organization and financing of metropolitan-wide functions in the Greater Pittsburgh Region
XII. Political and Administrative Instruments to Integrate Federal-State-and Local Governmental Action	

XIII. Elements of a Comprehensive Program to Improve National Administration

XIV. Executive Leadership and Action in International Organizations

XV. Preconditions and Administrative Requisites for Administrative Modernization

I. Syndicate meetings to modernize the government of Progresso

J. Preparation of recommendations for the reorganization of the Pan American Union

APPENDIX E

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC AND INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS
University of Pittsburgh

CC 360 Application of Administrative Theory and Process to Fields of Action

Donald C. Stone
Instructor

Discussion Guide - 22 May 1968

Topic V. ADMINISTRATION OF UNIVERSITIES AND INSTITUTES OF ADMINISTRATION

Universities present a very difficult and cumbersome type of organization. In most universities the function of executive leadership and initiative is suppressed by university statutes, by allocation of responsibilities to collegial bodies, by method of appointment, and by associations of professors.

Since postgraduate students should be equipped not only to engage in graduate teaching and research but also in administrative responsibilities of universities, it is essential that they become knowledgeable about the basic issues and problems of university administration.

The questions listed below cover a wide range of issues of theory and process related to the objectives, functions, culture, and environment of universities and institutes. These issues are rarely studied, and seldom discussed. The bibliographical references are thus meager.

1. Should faculties determine fields of education which a university or institute of administration should cover or should this be a political-social decision related to questions of societal needs. In other words, how can universities be made society-serving rather than faculty-serving?

2. What effect upon the exercise of leadership results when deans and rectors (presidents and chancellors) are elected by faculty boards or councils, as in the French tradition on the one hand, or by boards of trustees, councils, or regents?

3. Should governing boards or councils be prohibited from exercising any authority over academic programs and policies as commonly advocated by academic groups?

4. Should faculty representatives be members of boards or councils? Should students?

5. Should faculty senates and faculty boards have final collective authority over academic programs and budgets as in the English tradition? What is the effect of this on innovation?

6. What functions are appropriate to the two parallel systems of organization in a university: the system of faculty collegial organs (departmental and school faculties, senates, councils, etc.) and the system of hierarchy in academic positions (presidents, vice-presidents, deans, chairman of departments)?

7. Why is there almost no effective short-term or long-range program and financial planning in most universities, particularly those outside of the United States?

8. Assuming that the question of academic freedom has been resolved, to what extent is the system of life tenure of professors beneficial or detrimental to universities? Is it equitable to have a system in which faculty not on tenure can be dealt with capriciously by universities and those on tenure are free to treat the university capriciously?

9. How can student opinion and participation best be reflected in university decision-making?

10. Outside of a few countries, not many universities carry on non-degree education and training programs as these are viewed as academically inappropriate. In British-type universities such programs are usually assigned to an extramural department and separated from the responsibilities of academic units. An increasing number of schools and institutes of public administration are committed to a balanced program of non-degree training, research, advisory services, and academic programs. What are the pros and cons of these approaches?

11. Under what conditions, if any, should an institute or school of administration separate from a university offer academic degrees?

12. What dangers are there in placing an institute of administration in a university?

13. Is it appropriate for an institute or school of administration in a university to provide advisory services to governments?

14. What is the difference between disciplinary and professional education and how should these be reflected in university organization?

15. There is considerable opinion that academic programs in public administration should be offered only at the postgraduate level. Under what conditions should an institute or school offer baccalaureate degrees in administration?

16. What fields of public service administration important in national, regional, and local government require professionally prepared personnel which a university or institute should consider in formulating programs?

17. What are the pros and cons of including business administration and public administration in the same institute or school; city planning and public administration; social work and public administration; international affairs and public administration?

APPENDIX F

Evaluation of Seminar on Application of Administrative Theory and Processes to Fields of Action

1. How relevant to your interests and development were the concepts and problems of the course?

Very_______ Considerably_______ Partially_______ Not Very_______

Comment:

2. Was the amount of time given to the initial group analysis of the relevance of theory to your fields?

Too little_______ About Right_______ Too Much_______ No Opinion_______

Comment:

3. How much did the work of the course duplicate subject matter and problems of other courses?

A Lot_______ Some_______ Very Little_______ None_______

List other courses which duplicated this seminar undesirably:

4. What parts of the course or specific subjects should be given more attention:

Which Less?

5. One aim of the course was to involve the student in all of the School's fields. Did it accomplish this purpose for you?

Yes_______ No_______

Comment:

6. To what extent did the projects provide you with useful insights, skills, and confidence in tackling new problems?

	Very Beneficial	Beneficial	Somewhat Beneficial	Not Beneficial
A-Group reports on application of theory to fields	____	____	____	____
B-Assuming Post of Director of National Planning Council	____	____	____	____
C-Institute of Public Administration Project	____	____	____	____
D-U.N.Technical Assistance in Personnel Admin.	____	____	____	____
E-Preparation of Development Plan for Private Sector of Progresso	____	____	____	____
F-Progresso Urban Municipal Government Project	____	____	____	____
Z-Creation of a Greater Pittsburgh Public Services Administration	____	____	____	____
OAS Reorganization Project	____	____	____	____

7. What different project subjects do you recommend for another year?

8. Did you spend more than one-fourth of your academic work time on the course?

Yes_______No_______Estimate the average hours per week_______

Was the effort required in relation to your total program

Too Much_______Too Little_______About Right_______

9. What is your judgment of the Progresso simulation for clinical exercises?

Very useful_______Satisfactory_______Not very satisfactory_______Comment:

10. Check the appropriate column:

	Too much	Enough	Too Little
a. Amount of reading required	______	______	______
b. Amount of field work	______	______	______
c. Amount of theory involved	______	______	______
d. Emphasis on role and methods of the executive	______	______	______
e. Emphasis on decision-making	______	______	______
f. Emphasis on programming	______	______	______
g. General lectures on subjects	______	______	______
h. Use of role-playing	______	______	______
i. Student oral presentations	______	______	______
j. Individual project exercises	______	______	______
k. Group project exercises	______	______	______
l. Critical analysis of papers by instructors	______	______	______
m. Criteria of excellence applied in grading papers	______	______	______

11. In what specific ways would you recommend changing the way the course was conducted?

12. What specific ideas, benefits, or skills, if any, did you derive from the course?

APPENDIX G

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC AND INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS
University of Pittsburgh

PROGRAM OUTLINE FOR THE INSTITUTE ON ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT FOR DEVELOPMENT

I. INTERPERSONAL AND INTERCULTURAL DYNAMICS — 5 days

   A. The Social Process in Development

   B. Processes of Group Formation, Role-relations, Leadership, and Authority

   C. Cultural Differences and Cross-cultural Adaptation

   D. Sensitivity in Interpersonal and Group Behavior

II. PROBLEMS AND TASKS OF DEVELOPMENT — 5 days

   A. Political Aspects of National Development

   B. Social Implications

   C. Economic Implications

   D. Administrative Problems and Requisites

   E. Development Planning and Implementation: Methods of Integration

   F. Framework of Development Administration

III. THE ANALYTICAL TOOLS TO ACHIEVE DEVELOPMENT GOALS — 7 days

   A. Macro and Micro Economic Analysis

   B. Economic Planning

   C. Administrative Planning

   D. Quantitative Methods, Operations Research, Systems Analysis

   E. Administrative Management Surveys

   F. Administrative Problem-Solving Responsibilities

IV. IMPROVEMENT OF PROGRAM PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION — 10 days

- A. Common Deficiencies in Program Planning
- B. Methods of Optimizing the Economic Planning Process
- C. Integration of National Economic Planning With Regional and Local Planning Agencies
- D. The Budgetary System as an Instrument of Resource Allocation, Programming, and Coordination
- E. Program Evaluation and Revision

V. STRENGTHENING OF ADMINISTRATIVE CAPABILITIES FOR DEVELOPMENT — 12 days

- A. Improving Administration Through Executive and Supervisory Channels
- B. Methods of Implementing Managerial Decisions
- C. Budgeting as an Instrument of Management
- D. Personnel Management as a Means of Administrative Improvement
- E. Strengthening the Administration of Ministries and Departments
- F. Improving the Management of Public Enterprise
- G. Organizing at the Center of Government
- H. Modernizing Urban Government
- I. Strengthening the Administrative Relations Between National, Regional, and Local Governments

VI. IMPROVEMENT OF PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT — 10 days

- A. Determining Project Feasibility
- B. Project Design, Finance, and Selection
- C. Organization for Project Execution
- D. Scheduling, Allocating, and Mobilizing Resources
- E. Network and Other Systems of Analysis and Development Projects
- F. Supervision of Project Construction, Development, and Operations
- G. Progress Reporting, Accounting, and Cost Controls
- H. Project Evaluation

VII. STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGE — 12 days

A. Alternative Development Strategies

B. Creating the Motivations and Institutional Climate to Support Change

C. Planning and Producing the Administrative Manpower for Development

D. Administrative Adjustments Necessary for Governmental Transformation: Progresso-Regresso Simulation

E. The Task of Political Leadership in Development

F. Executive Responsibility for Creating Capabilities for Development

TRAINING PROJECT EVALUATION REPORT

For the Period ______________________ to ______________________ and

It would be of great assistance to us to have your evaluation of the sessions that you have attended during the period indicated above. In order to enable you to express your feelings as freely as possible and to ensure maximum benefit, you are requested not to identify yourself.

PART A: SUBJECT MATTER COVERED DURING THE PERIOD

1. Do you think that the topics presented during the period were relevant to the stated purposes of the Institute?

______extremely relevant ______hardly relevant

______very relevant ______not relevant at all

2. Do you think that the issues discussed were too theoretical, or do you think that the topics discussed had operational applicability to development administration?

_____extremely theoretical, no practical application

_____theoretical, but lacking in sufficient practical application

_____hardly theoretical, too much emphasis on practical application

_____completely lacking in theory, all emphasis on practical application

3. We would like to have your reaction on the technical level of the material presented during the period. Do you think that you got an adequate view of the latest "state of the science," the latest techniques on the topic covered?

_____adequate _____not adequate

4. Do you have any other comments on the nature of the material? For example, would you have preferred more coverage of any particular topic (please identify day and session).

PART B: INSTRUCTION TECHNIQUES DURING THE PERIOD

5. Do you think that the presentation of the material was

___excellent ___good ___adequate ___sketchy, superficial ___poor

6. Do you think that the instructor spoke:

____too fast ____fast ____about right ____slow ____too slow

7. In regard to the presentation of the subject matter:

____I got the feeling that the instructor did not welcome questions or contrary opinions

____The instructor permitted questions and divergent opinions, but he did not respond to participants' views

____The instructor permitted questions and contrary opinions and was responsive to participants' views. His remarks were not structured into a cohesive presentation.

____The instructor encouraged active participation (questions and contrary opinions included) from and among the participants. He was responsive to their views and had a well-structured presentation

8. Please evaluate the methods of instruction used:

Lectures without group discussion or with very limited group discussion

_____too many _____enough _____too few

Case Studies, or extended group discussion

_____too much _____enough _____too little

Working Groups

_____too much _____enough _____too little

9. Any other comments:

SPECIAL FUND OR PROJECT BUDGET ESTIMATE

For Fiscal Year____________________Account No.________________

Project or Fund Title____

____

Purpose____

Source of Funds____

AVAILABILITY OF FUNDS

List categories of authorizations or limitations	Carryover from last fiscal year	New funds available this year	Total funds available this year	Estimated carryover end of year

Estimated Expenditures	For last fiscal year	For new fiscal year	Remarks
Teaching, research, and administrative staff..................			
Secretarial and clerical..........			
Maintenance personnel.............			
Supplies, teaching materials, and office expense.................			
Maintenance materials and services			
Documents for Library.............			
Equipment.........................			
Travel and Hospitality............	_______	_______	
Total			

Program Director_______________________Fund Supervisor___________

Approved____________________________Approved____________________
(Finance Officer) (Director)

COMPREHENSIVE BUDGET SCHEDULE FOR FISCAL YEAR 1969

Date______________________

Source of Funds	Actual FY 1967	Estimated current year	Estimated FY 1969
Basic general fund (GF)			
GF allocation for training programs			
GF allocation for scholarships			
EZ foundation grant for books			
UN grant for training materials			
Training contract with ABC Enterprises			
Allocation by Commission of Inquiry for Civil Service Study			
Net profit estimated on residential halls			
Net loss estimated on food services			
Etc.			
Total	____	____	____

APPENDIX K

BUDGET PERFORMANCE REPORT

Month of____________________

Account No.________________ Date of Report________________

Title of Project of Account____________________________

____

Supervisor of Project_________________________________

Program Director_____________________________________

Total amount of grant, contract, or other fund $________________

Amount Available

Balance carried over from previous year $________________

Receipts credited to fund this year $________________

Income due the fund this year (assured) $________________

Total available this year $________________

Expense	Approved Budget For Year	Expenses this Month	Expenses Year To Date	Expenses Prior Years	Total Fund Expenses To Date
Faculty Salaries......					
Non-Faculty Salaries..					
Equipment.............					
Other Costs...........					
Totals................					
% Spent...........					
Unexpended Total...					